The Nation.

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The Week.

THE story in Washington despatches that President Harrison "means to settle the whole Hawaiian question, if possible, before he goes out of office," if true, does not reflect much credit on him, because it is hardly possible for him in that period to give the matter due consideration. In the absence of telegraphic communication, even the facts of the revolution in Honolulu can hardly be ascertained within that period. There are two stories before him, one that of the Hawaiian Government, with which we have a treaty of commerce and amity which that government has not broken and which has still two years to run. The other is that of certain foreign residents who have overturned this government by force of arms, on the ground, as well as we can make out, that the sovereign had entered on a policy of "heathen and sorcerous reaction." These two stories are in many respects contradictory, and each side has plenty of motives, as in all such controversies, for perverting, coloring, and misstating. Is it possible to accept either without taking testimony?

It must be remembered that the Treaty of 1875, an extension of which was negotiated by Secretary Frelinghuysen, recognized the independence and comp[illegible]ncy of the Hawaiian monarchy; no [illegible]jection was made in the treaty on our side to the religion or customs of the natives. The treaty put restrictions on the power of the Hawaiian Government to "lease or otherwise dispose of or create any lien on any port, harbor, or other territory in his (the King's) dominion, or grant any special privileges or rights of use therein to any other Power, State, or Government, or make any treaty by which any other nation shall obtain the same privileges relative to the admission of any articles free of duty." If the Hawaiian Government had violated any of these stipulations, we should undoubtedly have been justified in interfering by force, if necessary, to prevent such violation. But has it? Nothing of this kind has happened. The treaty contains no other restrictions. It contains no provisions against heathenish or sorcerous practices, or against debauchery or immorality on the part of the Queen in her palace or other public building; and yet it is these practices and immoralities which are put forth by the revolutionists as an excuse for overturning the Government, and proposing the absolute conquest of the Islands by the United States. Are these statements correct? It is no doubt important to have a coaling-station somewhere about Honolulu, but it is far more important that the United States should, especially in its dealings with weaker Powers, show itself law-abiding. Therefore, there should be no haste in this matter, and President Harrison, besides avoiding even the appearance of haste, should avoid imposing on Mr. Cleveland the execution of a policy initiated by his predecessor without the sense of responsibility which is always created by having to carry out one's own plans.

The same partisan motives which prompted twelve Republican Senators who voted against the Stewart Silver Bill last July to vote against the repeal bill on Monday week, prompted a sufficient number of Republicans in the House to defeat the repealing bill there. We shall now undoubtedly have an extra session of Congress. We do not see how it can be avoided. The Treasury exists only from hand to mouth, and it is a question how long it can exist that way. The recent action of certain New York banks in making a call loan to the Government of four or five million dollars without interest, in order to avoid trenching on the greenback reserve fund, was prompted by the feeling that we are all a part of the Government, and that all of us are bound to sustain it according to our ability and our means. This is a noble sentiment, but we think that in the present case it was misplaced. There is no occasion to apply the principles of benevolence to the richest government in the world in a time of profound peace. There is no reason why the banks should lend to the Government without interest when they charge 2, 3, or 4 per cent. to their own customers. We are not now at the beginning of a war of unknown duration, when some men must risk their money and others their lives in order that the Government itself may be preserved. On the contrary, we are at the end, or very near the end, of a period of consummate folly. That which has been foreseen and predicted during fifteen years—the loss of our gold—has come to pass. The Secretary of the Treasury said in a public speech in this city two years ago that whenever that crisis should be reached, he would sell bonds to replenish his stock. Now nothing else could give Congress and the country such a wholesome shock as the spectacle of a Secretary selling interest-bearing bonds to pay current expenses and buy silver bullion with. Nothing else, in fact, is so desirable. But, of course, no Secretary will sell interest-bearing bonds so long as a lot of bankers offer him gold without interest. And, of course, the silver-men in Congress will say that these gold-bug bankers are moved by the selfish motive of preserving the gold standard.

The bill or amendment proposed by Senator Sherman, to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to issue bonds bearing interest at 3 per cent. and having five years to run, in order to maintain specie payments, ought to pass without opposition, as it merely takes the place of the Act of 1875, still in force, which authorizes the issue of 4 per cents running thirty years, or 4½s running fifteen years, or 5s running ten years. Of course the Secretary ought not to issue bonds for a longer time, or at a higher rate of interest, than absolutely necessary. He ought not to be restricted by a law passed nearly twenty years ago, at a time when the Government could not borrow on long bonds at a less rate than 4 per cent. and on short ones at less than 5. Probably the silver-men will oppose Mr. Sherman's bill or amendment, since it will be a new sanction to the Secretary's right to issue bonds to replenish his stock of gold. So we may have the silver fight opened afresh in both houses within a very short time. Let us hope that it may be so.

Whether or not we shall have a civilized and efficient system of quarantine in this country next summer now depends entirely upon the national Government. Under the bill which has passed both houses of Congress, and which the President is certain to approve, full power to take the matter into his own hands at all ports of the country is conferred upon the Secretary of the Treasury acting through the Marine Hospital Service. The language of the bill is plain and unmistakable. It declares that the "Supervising Surgeon-General of the Marine Hospital Service shall, immediately after this act takes effect, examine the quarantine regulations of all State and municipal boards of health, and shall, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, coöperate with and aid State and municipal boards of health in the execution and enforcement of the rules and regulations of such boards and in the execution and enforcement of the rules and regulations made by the Secretary of the Treasury, to prevent the introduction of contagious or infectious diseases into the United States." In case the State or local authorities endeavor to interpret this provision to mean that by coöperation the law intends concurrence of the national authorities with the State or local authorities, they will discover their mistake when they examine the subsequent provisions of the measure. After decreeing that all rules and regulations made by the Secretary of the Treasury "shall operate uniformly, and in no manner discriminate against any port or place," the bill gives the Secretary authority to establish quarantine at all ports and places which are without it now, and which, in his judgment, ought to have it, and declares, in reference to his authority over ports and places which have a quarantine, that in case the exist-

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ing regulations under State or municipal control are in his opinion insufficient, he "shall make such additional rules and regulations as are necessary," and that these

"shall be promulgated by the Secretary of the Treasury and enforced by the sanitary authorities of the States and municipalities, where the State or municipal authorities will undertake to execute and enforce them; but *if the State or municipal authorities shall fail or refuse to enforce said rules and regulations, the President shall execute and enforce the same, and adopt such measures as in his judgment shall be necessary to prevent the introduction or spread of diseases, and may detail or appoint officers for that purpose.*"

Other provisions of the bill, applying to the supervision of immigration at foreign ports, are equally valuable. Every vessel clearing for the United States from a foreign port is required to obtain from the American consular office at the port of departure, or from a special American medical officer detailed for the purpose by the President, a complete bill of health, drawn in accordance with rules and regulations sent out by the Secretary of the Treasury. The President is also given power, whenever he shall be convinced that the public health requires it, "to prohibit, in whole or in part, the introduction of persons or property from such countries or places as he shall designate, and for such period of time as he may deem necessary." Any vessel violating any of the provisions of the law will be liable to a fine of $5,000. The bill as originally drawn contained an appropriation of $1,000,000 to be used by the President at his discretion in its execution. This was stricken out on its final passage, but a smaller appropriation for the purpose is to be included in the Sundry Civil Bill, and this ought to be passed without opposition. Of course if there is no appropriation, the bill will be a practically useless measure.

It is good news that a majority of the House Committee on Appropriations have decided to recommend radical reforms in the administration of the pension system. One of the changes proposed is that hereafter no widow shall receive a pension if she married the soldier more than five years after his discharge. This would put an end to the scandalous custom of young women marrying old ex-soldiers simply in order to draw a widow's pension after the soon-expected and desired death of the husband. In one case recently brought to light a woman of twenty married a veteran of eighty, who was almost on his death-bed. A few months afterwards he died, and now she will be a pensioner at eight dollars a month for the remainder of her life. Another amendment proposes to exclude from pensions under the Disability Act all persons who are not disabled from manual labor and who are in receipt of an income of more than $600 a year. This would end the scandal by which well-to-do and even wealthy men, like a rich manufacturer elected to Congress in Massachusetts last fall, become a burden upon the taxpayers. Other minor reforms are recommended, but the most important change of all is that which proposes to transfer the Pension Bureau from the Interior to the War Department, and to place it in charge of army officers.

The vote in the Committee was along partisan lines, except that Chairman Holman of Indiana joined the Republicans in opposition to the reforms. This is quite in harmony with his habit of advocating a cheese-paring policy on unimportant matters, and refusing any support to measures which would effect great savings in rational ways. Nobody expects that the Republican Senate will agree to the proposed changes if they are endorsed by the House, but there will be no such obstacle to their adoption in the next Congress. Indeed, the Republicans themselves cannot be held solidly against such reasonable propositions. The Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* reports that a good many Republicans favor the transfer of the Pension Bureau to the War Department, on the ground that it would tend to keep the Pension Office out of politics, which has been one of the worst failings of this bureau in the past.

Senator Mills of Texas deserves equal praise with Senator Vest of Missouri for voting against the Anti-Option Bill in obedience to his own convictions of duty, although the Legislature of his State had instructed him to vote for it. So strong was Texas sentiment in favor of the bill that a resolution of instructions passed the lower branch of the Legislature by a vote of 83 to 29, and yet Mr. Mills not only voted against the measure, but made a most cogent argument against it, full of ridicule of its manifold absurdities. When the news reached Austin, where the Legislature is now in session, a resolution was introduced reciting the resolution of instructions, and declaring that "said Mills has proved recreant to the trust reposed in him," and that "we deprecate and condemn his action." A substitute was promptly offered, declaring that "the members of the House, reposing full confidence in the Hon. R. Q. Mills in all things, commend him for his moral and political courage in the stand taken by that gentleman in the United States Senate," and, after being amended so as to commend the Senator also for his tariff record, it was adopted by the overwhelming vote of 94 to 22. Courage and independence really seem to be proving popular.

The election of a Populist to the United States Senate from Nebraska removes the last lingering hope of any Republican that his party could, by hook or by crook, retain control of the upper branch of Congress. The new Senator from Nebraska will, of course, vote against the Republicans on the organization of the body, and even if they secure the other seats which still remain vacant, they cannot possibly muster a majority. On the repeal of the McKinley Bill there is likely to be a majority of several votes on the right side, as all of the Populists will doubtless vote with the Democrats.

There are many signs that "labor" in and about Chicago proposes to insist upon a large share of the fabulous wealth which the World's Fair is expected to pour upon the favored city. Organizations of one sort and another are quietly preparing to demand higher wages for less work. In particular there is reported a new association of all kinds of railway employees, which is formed, so the organizers say, for the "advancement of wages and the shortening of hours." They regard their position as very strong, since by a strike they can stop the flow of wealth in transit, and keep it off at arm's length until their greedy employers come to terms. The Chicago people may as well make up their minds to face the music at once. Their city is already said to be overrun with the unemployed, drawn thither by the reports of an abundance of easy work at high wages. Indeed, we are told that the managers of lodging-houses and other charities in New York city already miss large numbers of those whom they have been accustomed to help, and who have managed to work or beat their way to Chicago. If any countenance is given to the idea that the Fair is going to make it possible for Chicago workingmen to get wages sensibly higher than those paid for the same work in the country in general, there will be such a rush that way that the city will have an extraordinary number of the destitute on its hands. The thing will work in Chicago just as it has in London, where the increased wages given the employees of the County Council has not only thrown the burden of an extra $30,000 on the city's pay-roll, but has lured in from the country thousands of agricultural laborers, who find no work and have to be taken care of out of the poor-rates. No part of Chicago's exhibition would be more valuable than a firm refusal of the managers and employers to give in to the mistaken idea, now grown too common among workingmen, that there is an inexhaustible fund for the payment of wages, and that all laboring-men have to do is to combine and threaten in order to increase their wages indefinitely.

The Home Rule Bill was introduced on Monday in the House of Commons and will probably make nearly as much excitement as it did on its first appearance in 1886, largely owing to the dramatic effect of Mr. Gladstone's reappearance with it, with seven years added to his age, which was

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already great on the former occasion. There is no record of any such exploit on the part of a man of eighty-three as that which he is now attempting. The nearest approach to it is Dandolo's heading the storming party at Constantinople at the age of ninety. Lord Palmerston, who was considered a wonderful example of senile activity, died at eighty-one, and was plainly broken before his death, and no statesman, as well as we can recollect, had before him kept the stage, in either Europe or America, as long as he. Marshal Radetzky came nearer equalling Dandolo's record than any other modern, for he commanded the Austrians in a successful campaign against the Piedmontese in 1849, at Gladstone's age. But no military man leads, except for a short period, the life of burning activity and incessant care which Mr. Gladstone pursues. The result is that he is now reaping a great deal of useful popularity merely as a prodigy. The House of Commons and the whole country, foes as well as friends, are looking on with wonder, which inevitably has a great deal of admiration in it.

Mr. Balfour's speech on the Home-Rule Bill, though reported, of course, only imperfectly, gives a tolerably clear idea of the line the Opposition will take against the bill. It is substantially that which Lord Salisbury takes in the House of Lords. The Conservatives apparently do not propose to spend much time or labor over the details of the measure, but to treat it in its entirety, first as an attack on the integrity of the Empire and on the Imperial Constitution, and then as something which, even if good in itself, could not be carried out owing to the perversity and incompetency of Irish politicians. These tactics naturally compel the selection of the plan of retaining the Irish members at Westminster as the principal point of attack. This is probably also the weakest point, being, indeed, the rock on which the bill of 1886 split. It was the absence of any such provision which furnished Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Henry James and several other leading Liberal-Unionists with an excuse for deserting their party. This was, too, the objection which made most impression on Mr. Gladstone himself, and on even the most faithful of his followers. It was the one to which he recurred most frequently during his seven years of eclipse, and, if we remember rightly, the only one which he openly acknowledged the force of and promised to remove. It gave his bill, in the eyes of Englishmen, the air of a proposal to endow Ireland with complete independence, and tended to reduce her connection with England to that of a mere common allegiance to a constitutional monarch.

He has now endeavored to meet it by providing for the presence of Irish representatives in the British Parliament with limited voting powers, but we fear that in doing so he has raised difficulties even more formidable than the original one itself. These Irish members are to vote only on Imperial as distinguished from purely English and Scotch questions. If these questions were easily definable, which they are not, and if it were easy to provide a mode of defining them, which it is not, Mr. Gladstone would still have to guard against the possibility of having the English Ministry, which would always be identical with the Imperial Ministry, turned out of office by the votes of the Irish members. If they could not be turned out of office on an Imperial question when the majority against them was furnished by Irish votes—that is, if Irish votes were not to count on a division as to who should be the Queen's advisers, say, in foreign policy—it would make the presence of the Irish in the Imperial Parliament as great a mockery for the purposes of Imperial legislation as their presence now is. This is the great difficulty of Mr. Gladstone's scheme. He confesses that it is formidable, and does not pretend that he has successfully met it. If his bill should be wrecked a second time, this will probably wreck it. It is on this point that his opponents are likely to be able to make most impression on the English mind.

The other provisions of the bill are really not open to much criticism from those who concede the expediency of granting any home rule at all. The creation of a new constituency based on a property qualification for the election of the Upper House or Senate, for the protection of the landed class, would be, Mr. Balfour maintains, an illusory scheme, because, in these democratic days, no property barriers can long resist popular impatience of inequality. But then he does not point out how this constituency is to be got rid of without a successful rising against the supremacy of the Imperial Government. Nor does he give any reason for thinking that any other parts of the arrangements would not succeed except the intractableness of the Irish native. The arrangements with regard to the judges, the police, the land question, and the division of financial burdens and liabilities would offer but little material for criticism if they were the results of negotiation between two communities which naturally respected and confided in each other. The objection which is made to this proposed Irish constitution on the Conservative side is the one which has been made to all written constitutions that have ever been framed, viz., that everybody who had to live under it would probably do the very worst things that it made or left possible—that is, exercise every power of obstruction or paralysis of which it had not formally deprived him. As this sort of objection is necessarily prophecy, it is impossible to refute it.

Considerable excitement has been caused in Buenos Ayres by the publication of the accounts of the agent of the Chilian revolutionists who was established in that city in the summer of 1891. Among his expenses was an item of some $4,000 which was set down to "securing telegrams by bribery." It was explained that the telegrams in question were Balmaceda's despatches to his foreign agents, via Buenos Ayres, and their interception was clearly of the greatest value to his opponents. But the Argentine press has taken up the matter with fury, alleging a gross insult to their Government, inasmuch as the telegraph operators supposed to have been bribed are Government officials. The Chilian agent who made the affair public has published a defence of his conduct, which consists in saying that no one can prove exactly how he performed the bribery, and that anyhow he had done only what Balmaceda did, for that dictator, he charged, had also bribed Argentine officials in order to get hold of the despatches of the revolutionists. This was not exactly calculated to allay the patriotic indignation of the Buenos Ayres newspapers, which had thus brought out the fact that the Government operators had been bribed by both sides. For us at this distance, however, the principal value of the occurrence lies in its suggestion of the fine times we should have in heated political contests in this country if the telegraph lines were taken under Government control and made a part of the resources of an Administration to maintain itself in power.

Recent accounts of the municipal meat-markets in Rio de Janeiro tell of things gone from bad to worse. The city is not only enormously taxed for its meat, but is not even getting the meat. The system has been put into the hands of such incompetent officials that it threatens a general break-down. No proper executive ability has been brought to the conduct of the business, so that there is no regularity about the shipping of cattle to the slaughter-houses or about the distribution of meat to the markets. The consequence is that there are days when the city is brought to the verge of famine, though the cattle ranges of the interior are well stocked, and nothing is lacking save an organizing faculty able to get the desired product to the hands of the desiring consumer. As the business is made a monopoly by the municipality, no private initiative is allowed to come to the rescue of the distressed inhabitants. One individual shipper ventured to bring in 370 head of cattle on his own account, but they were promptly confiscated by the city authorities. Resort has been had to frozen meat imported from the River Plate, as it seems foreign trade of the kind can set the municipal monopoly at defiance. The whole incident is one full of instruction for the Bellamy brethren, and they ought to make a serious study of it.

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THE BREAK-UP OF PARTIES.

PERHAPS the most important thing about Judge Jackson's appointment to the Supreme Bench has been its reception by the Republican party. Jackson is a representative Southern Democrat, who supported the Confederacy; Harrison is a Northern Republican, who has always been of the strictest partisan school. The place in question is one which gives its incumbent the power to interpret the Constitution of the nation which Harrison supported and Jackson sought to overthrow.

It was, as we said at the time, a statesmanlike act for President Harrison, the Northern Republican, to give this judgeship to a representative of the Southern Democracy. But it remained to be seen how the country, and especially how the Republican party, would take it. This has now been made plain. While a small Bourbon element in the party, of whom Boutelle is the fit representative in the East and Clarkson in the West, condemns the appointment, and denounces the President for making it, the overwhelming majority of Republicans either accept it with resignation or hail it with applause. All candid men recognize that, with six of the eight present judges Republicans, and none of the eight a representative of the South, justice required the selection of a good Southern Democrat for the vacancy. But the average partisan in ordinary times is not apt to be candid, and in such a case as this would be too likely to hold that a Republican President, having the chance to appoint a Republican, ought to improve it. The remarkable thing is that so few Republicans now take this view, and that so many commend Mr. Harrison's course, holding, as the Hartford *Courant* puts it, that

> "Mr. Harrison's last appointment does him immense credit, and strengthens him and the party he stands for before the country. It may please Mr. Clarkson to pose before the country a moment, and to be seen as the critic of the President, passing adverse judgment upon him. But it should be distinctly understood that he speaks for himself, and that he is not the party nor its representative. That sort of statesmanship has had its day that could see no good on the other side, and that preached the old-fashioned doctrine that 'the worst Republican is better than the best Democrat,' or 'the worst Democrat better than the best Republican.' An intelligent and patriotic nation is sick of such twaddle."

The general acquiescence of the Republican party in Mr. Harrison's unexpected act, and still more the commendation of his course by so large a proportion, shows how far the old bitterness of party feeling has declined and how rapid is the progress towards a break-up of old party lines. Such a state of things could not have existed a dozen years ago. The sectional issue was then still too vigorous; the dread of Democrats, and especially of "Rebel" Democrats, was still too real. Four-fifths of the party would then have been honest in "viewing with alarm" such a performance, and would not have been ashamed to maintain, what the *Courant* now so properly ridicules, that the worst Republican should always be preferred to the best Democrat.

"The era of good feeling" which prevailed during Monroe's Administration has become historic. It is hardly too much to say that there is now a nearer approach to a revival of that era than has ever been seen since that day. From the time that the slavery issue became the controlling one, it was inevitable that party feeling should be strong until its final settlement. The utter collapse of the last attempt to maintain that old issue in the shape of the Force Bill has at last convinced the country that this chapter in our national history is closed, and that we have turned over a new leaf. The last Presidential campaign was the least bitter for a generation simply because Republican voters generally felt less interest in the result than ever before, less conviction that the success of their own party was essential, less fear that the triumph of the opposition would cause any harm. It was this which made hundreds of thousands of old Republicans stay away from the polls for the first time in a Presidential election, and which reconciled tens of thousands who perfunctorily cast their ballots for Harrison to the election of Cleveland.

When even Harrison recognizes the revolution that is in progress by closing his Administration with the appointment of a life-long Southern Democrat to the Supreme Bench, it is not strange that Cleveland should show an even keener sense of its significance, by the selection for the first place in his Cabinet of a Northern man who was always until last fall a Republican. Jackson's appointment to the highest bench is right because the judicial questions growing out of the old slavery issue have already been settled upon a basis which he accepts. Gresham's appointment to the State Department is wise because, on the new issues in which the people are now most interested, and especially on the tariff issue, he stands on the right side. The question hereafter is not whether one man was a Union man or a Confederate thirty years ago, but whether he will make a good judge now; not whether the other supported the Republican party in the days when its candidate for President in 1880 declared himself "in favor of a protection that leads to free trade," but whether he now supports the policy for which the people declared so emphatically last fall.

An old era in our politics is ended and a new one has opened. The election of Lincoln in 1860 marked one such change; the election of Cleveland in 1892 signalizes the other. Lincoln built up the Republican party by taking into his Cabinet Edwin M. Stanton, a man who sympathized with Republican purposes, although he had been in Buchanan's Cabinet. Cleveland shows himself possessed of an equally statesmanlike mind when he invites into his Cabinet one who has been a Cabinet officer under a Republican administration, but who sympathizes with Democratic purposes now.

LEGISLATION BY PATRONAGE.

NO President-elect of recent times has had so much reason as Mr. Cleveland for asking anxiously, not how he shall fulfil pledges respecting the distribution of office, but how he shall fulfil pledges respecting legislation for the public good. Honest Flanagan stood up in the National Republican Convention of 1880 with his now historic inquiry, "What are we here for if not for the offices?" and unmasked the pretence that the Presidential contest of that year was anything more than a struggle for the spoils. The Democratic Administration will come into power next month, and will speedily find the country asking it, if it does not put the question to itself, "What are you there for if not to repeal the McKinley Bill and remove the silver peril?"

Yet it is precisely at this point of party responsibility for the passage of promised laws for the relief of the people that the old spoils argument is now directing its attack in a new form. The cry no longer is that all the minor offices must be filled at once with Democrats in order to "strengthen the party," build up an efficient machine, keep up the popular interest in elections, etc., but in order to repeal the McKinley Bill and the Sherman Silver Law. How can the country believe Mr. Cleveland to be sincerely for tariff reform, it is asked, if he leaves in office tens of thousands of postmasters and letter-carriers and clerks who are McKinleyites? How can Congressmen be expected to vote with any heartiness for a revised tariff or sound money if they find their recommendations for office coldly received by the President? It is intimated, even by such men as Congressman Harter, that Mr. Cleveland ought to force through the repeal of the silver purchases by the use of patronage. It is said if he would only agree to "take care of" some fifty or sixty Congressmen who failed of reëlection to the next Congress, that their devotion to the dollar of the fathers, and their deference to the wishes of their constituents, and even their grave constitutional scruples, could all be overcome in a twinkling. And then if he would promise to turn over to sound-money Democrats every office they took a fancy to, the repeal would go through speedily.

Now, we think the folly of all this can be shown by the briefest reference to experience and the nature of the case. There is no more reason to think that a lavish use of patronage will bring strength to a legislative measure than to a party machine or a party boss, and if the history of the past six years proves anything, it proves that patronage is the weakness of parties and bosses alike. What good did it do Harrison or his party to turn Virginia

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over to Mahone, and Pennsylvania to Quay, and New York to Platt, to loot the railway-mail service and turn out postmasters by the thousand? To go back to the last year of President Cleveland's Administration, what did it profit him to give W. L. Scott full swing in Pennsylvania in order to down the Randall group? That was a case very like the present situation. Scott was given the offices to make sure that the Mills Bill should pass. It did pass, but the methods used to pass it argued such a falling off from the earlier professions and practices of the President that he lost the support of many civil-service reformers, and, by so much, directly played into the hands of the high-tariff men.

The method is essentially vicious and is bound to defeat its own ends. It will work in the case of a measure of legislation just as it does with a party machine—that is, where patronage wins you one supporter, it makes you ten enemies. If Mr. Cleveland were to buy the votes of a score of free-silver Congressmen by putting offices at their disposal, he would instantly discover that a score more, whom he had supposed safe for honest money, had become exceedingly dubious as to their duty, and would need to have their doubts solved by an extra allotment of berths in the Federal service. Moreover, among the rank and file of the "workers," there would be among those who failed to get appointments — and they must always vastly outnumber those who get them—a fearful loss of faith in the principles and measures which were said to have brought their rivals office, and the first election would see thousands of them either not voting, or working for the other party.

Then it is to be remembered that there could be no surer way to sink a tariff bill or a currency bill out of sight than to involve its passage in an old-fashioned fight over the spoils. Personal questions and controversies are always more spicy and interesting than impersonal statutes. Rival Senators kicking up a tremendous dust over the question which one should get "his man" into "the place," and opposing Congressmen deluging the President with petitions and swamping him with interceding "delegations," would soon fill the public eye and take up all the time; and the bills themselves, to pass which the row had been precipitated, would be forgotten.

No one knows all this from personal observation and practical experience better than Mr. Cleveland, and we can therefore well believe the report that he has determined on quite another course. Instead of trying to force through the repeal of the Sherman Law by means of patronage, he proposes, so we are informed and believe, to refuse to discuss any appointments whatever until after that law is repealed. Such a plan would be effective, there can be no doubt. When the crowds of office-seekers learned of this determination, all their "pressure" would be applied to the repeal of that law, and the development of sound-money sentiment in unexpected quarters would be something unexampled. We should hope that Mr. Cleveland would then apply the same policy, having found it to work so well, to the repeal of the McKinley Bill. A revised tariff would go through Congress with such ease and rapidity as even ex-Speaker Reed never dreamed of, if all questions of appointment to office were held in abeyance till after its passage. Then, perhaps, the discovery would be made that Congressmen were elected, after all, to legislate, not to squabble about the offices, and the relief to them and to the Administration would prove to be so great that they would agree on all hands to extend the civil-service laws so as to put an end to the whole disagreeable and discreditable business.

BANK CREDITS.

THE address of Mr. James G. Cannon of the Fourth National Bank upon bank credits, delivered in Philadelphia, and now published in the *Banking Law Journal*, deals with a topic of importance not only to banks, but to the mercantile community. For while a bank strives to have good commercial assets behind its loans, manifestly its customers, the merchants, have a like interest in remaining solvent, and therefore also in discussions about such portions of their own accounts as are of debatable value.

The system of credits in trade is constantly changing. It was formerly the custom for every merchant to procure a note for goods sold. This note, bearing also the merchant's endorsement, would be discounted at the bank. Although the practice of asking notes is still kept up in a few lines of trade—Mr. Cannon mentions the tobacco, jewelry, and rubber trades and others which deal with staple products—yet in the majority of cases the merchant has only running accounts to show against his liabilities. This new system in turn has necessitated a change in mercantile loans, the greater part of a bank's purchases now consisting of single-name paper, not, as before, brought to the bank by the merchant himself, but negotiated through a note-broker. Mr. Cannon's estimate is that two-thirds of all the paper purchased by the New York banks is of this character; and of this large business he thinks fully three-quarters is taken upon the simple recommendation of the note-broker. These few statements indicate very clearly the change in business methods. Under the specializing process the negotiator of mercantile paper has become an influential member of the financial community; and on the other hand, so fixed has this custom become in the eyes of business men generally that houses with large dealings do not dare withdraw their paper from the market, even though the money so obtained lies idle, for fear of being considered otherwise not in first-class credit. Many parties now dislike to sell to merchants who do not discount their bills, alleging that a concern if good can always float its single-name paper.

This change in the customs of the business world shifts the burden of note credits from the special to the general. It is no longer the question with the bank whether a three months' acceptance made by a country firm with excellent rating and endorsed by the city house is safe, but whether the city house, taking all its business together, is solvent. To come to a safe conclusion, therefore, the bank (or the note-broker for it) must know more particulars about the borrower's business and accounts than was formerly necessary. And hence it happens that statements of their condition are demanded from houses putting out their own single notes—demands which are just and which are usually freely complied with. After such statements are received comes the hard task of analysis, and upon this matter of the reliance to be put upon certain items in the accounts Mr. Cannon's hints are of great value to banks and to merchants who wish a true knowledge of their own affairs. Since the book accounts are the main assets of the borrowing firm, their character is of the first importance. Are the customers of the firm scattered throughout the United States, or does the firm sell its goods mainly in one section? And if so, is that section liable to suffer because dependent on one crop? How many of these accounts are overdue? If a large proportion is thus "carried," the commercial value is, of course, uncertain. In the same way, if the debt due the firm is large compared with the rating of the customer, it is cause for suspicion. Then, again, the real estate is an item requiring examination. Some houses add to the value of their real estate each year all the cost of the successive improvements; in time such real estate will stand on the books at twice its real value.

Every firm putting out commercial paper relies somewhat upon its merchandise on hand as an offset to its liabilities. But manifestly in estimates as to real solvency we must take different kinds of merchandise at different values. Groceries, for example, if in unbroken packages, will sell for nearly their whole appraised value; but dry goods, boots and shoes, fancy articles, tobacco, and the like depend for their value at forced sale upon their condition or the fashion of the hour, and must be estimated accordingly. Here is a curious table, by trades, given by Mr. Cannon of the percentage of value which can safely be put upon book accounts and merchandise:

	Accts. rec. Per cent.	Mdse. Per cent.
Hardware	72	80
Dry goods	67	70
Boots and shoes	80	65
Furniture	70	68
Groceries	40	95

The comment of the *Banking Law Jour-*

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nal is, that these percentages are all too high by 10 or 20 per cent. as determined by an experience of fifty years. Mr. Cannon also lays stress upon the ratio of expenses to volume of business, though one ought to move cautiously in drawing a conclusion from that ratio. Investigation showed percentages of expenses varying from 15 per cent. in the hardware and jewelry trades down to but 1½ per cent. in the case of a dry-goods commission house doing a very large business, the average for all trades being about 7 per cent. It ought to be borne in mind that "large sales and small profits" will give a very different ratio of expenses to business from what we should expect to find in lines where the volume of transactions is comparatively small and profits correspondingly high. One matter very properly insisted upon by Mr. Cannon, though not usually taken into account, is that business statements should show the amount of contingent liabilities outstanding—notes, that is, of other firms which have been negotiated with the endorsement of the firm in question. The general custom is to mark such notes off as neither assets nor liabilities; but since they are called for in bank statements made to the Comptroller, they ought to be included in private statements also.

Bagehot, in one of his treatises on banking, declares that a house which does not borrow a part of its capital will not in general be successful, so necessary a part does credit play in modern merchandising. This necessity it is the business of the banks to supply; but since it is admitted that the profits of banking in the future will not be as large as in the past, and since, as we have seen, the money of banks is loaned upon the general solvency of the business community rather than upon particular lots of goods, it is evident that the methods of sound accounting need analysis and discussion more than ever before. Mr. Cannon's article, therefore, is both important and timely.

THE GOETHE-SCHILLER CULT IN GERMANY.

PARIS, February 3, 1893.

LAST summer I had occasion to collect materials on the subject of the present influence in Germany of Goethe and Schiller, when I received from Friedrich Spielhagen, the eminent German novelist, an interesting letter, from which I make, of course with his permission, the following extract:

"I hold that the present condition of the Goethe-Schiller cult in Germany is far from being so flourishing as it seems and ought to be, when one takes into account the important means employed to broaden and deepen this worship. We have the well-executed *Goethe-Jahrbuch*, edited by Ludwig Geiger; the publications of the Goethe Society, which issues an annual volume; the superb critical edition of Goethe's Complete Works, begun and conducted under the supervision of this same society; and the Goethe-Schiller archives in Weimar, which are about to be provided with a home worthy of them. Then we have a new biography of Schiller, a fresh edition of his collected letters, etc. This already long enumeration might be continued almost indefinitely, even if I were to confine myself to the principal productions of the indefatigable Goethe-Schiller scholars.

"But the question may well be asked, What is accomplished by all this labor? Now I do not wish to underrate its efficiency. I am quite ready to grant that these workers perform the most eminent service in the form of learned researches, which are carried to such a point that, in the near future, there will be left no hidden nook in the outer or inner life of our two great poets, particularly in the case of Goethe, into which these researches will not have thrown all the light that can be obtained.

"But I consider as being two very different things learned inquiries about the acts of a hero of genius, and the noble, broadening influence and effect of these actions on the life and blood, so to speak, of his country. The most painstaking and ingenious commentaries on the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' were indited at Alexandria, a whole library was filled with them, and yet Homer's sun set, and not all this flattering learned art could start it on its course again.

"I fear that much the same thing might be said of our Goethe-Schiller cult. The old text holds good here: 'By their fruits ye shall know them.' Where, I ask, are the fruits in our art and literature which have ripened in the Goethe-Schiller sun? Where do we find in our poetry of to-day Goethe's delicate and sure feeling for the beautiful in form? where his really living in the things which he describes? where Schiller's flights of fancy which wafted him high above the mean and vulgar, 'which enslaves us all'?*

"Hence we have to-day novels, short stories, dramas, piece after piece, on which even the Weimar cab-drivers would have turned their backs with a shudder; and a school of criticism has sprung up which has laid aside the bow and feathered arrow, and now simply strikes at random with clubs. So if one attempts to walk in the footsteps of the heroes, one is sure to get hurt and be ridiculed.

"This sounds very pessimistic, does it not? But it is not meant to be so pessimistic as it sounds. A country from which could spring a Goethe, a Schiller, cannot be condemned for ever to the vulgar in poetry and art. I consider this whole movement, embraced under the general term of Naturalism, to be only a transition stage—simply a misty groping of the poetic-artistic spirit after the form which will best reflect the new character of the radically changed life of the nation.

"Now, there is a possibility that this new character may be unable to find, in every case, its fitting artistic poetic expression. This would entail the decline of poetry and art, and the possible absorption of their remaining elements by science. But possibilities are, thank God, far from being realities; and, in my opinion, this possibility is not probable. I entertain the highest respect for science. It can do very, very much; but it cannot do everything. Science cannot satisfy the impulses of the human breast aspiring towards regions lying beyond what man knows and can know, to which the flight of fantasy can alone bear the elect to whom God has granted the power to tell what they suffer, the foremen and spokesmen of the millions who can feel but not always voice their dolor, and whose state has been happily described by Jean Paul in the phrase 'heaven's mutes.'*

"For the present, at least, we seem to be very far removed from this view of the matter. But sooner or later the path will open in this direction. Then will the true Goethe-Schiller cult begin in Germany; then will it be understood that—always *mutatis mutandis*—one must do as Goethe and Schiller did. Till that day comes, let the disciples of Goethe and Schiller go on spreading wider and wider their silent influence. But, while they keep alive the sacred fire, let them have a care not to weaken their cause by crying, 'Lord, Lord.' For nothing is worse than publicly proclaiming one's self high-priest of the Father in Heaven and then sacrificing to Baal. Nor is Germany wanting in such false prophets."

Perhaps these lines from Walter Robert-tornow, Librarian of the Emperor of Germany, which are written from the Schloss in Berlin, may be added as a postscript to Spielhagen's letter:

"A Goethe and Schiller cult, properly speaking, exists among us only in Weimar and in the Goethe Society circle. The Bismarck and Wagner cult is far more extensive in the Germany of to-day; for cosmopolitanism has been replaced, in this country, by patriotism, since Germans became conscious of their strength."

THEODORE STANTON.

* "Und hinter ihm [Schiller], in wesenlosem Scheine,
Lag, *was uns alle bändigt*, das Gemeine."

(From Goethe's poem, "Epilog zu Schiller's Glocke," "which," Spielhagen once wrote me, "is most famous in Germany, and is, indeed, one of the finest poems ever written in any language.")

* In another letter, referring to this expression, Spielhagen says: "'Die Stummen des Himmels' is a phrase of Jean Paul Richter's, and means those poor mortals in whose bosom is a heaven, or perhaps a hell, but who are mute and cannot tell their joys or give vent to their sufferings. This is the thought which I tried to express in the passage referred to."

WALISZEWSKI'S CATHARINE II.

PARIS, February 1, 1893.

'LE ROMAN D'UNE IMPÉRATRICE'—a catching title, not serious enough for a purely historical work. The Empress is Catharine II. of Russia, and the author, M. K. Waliszewski, can excuse himself by saying that the wildest novel can hardly be more extraordinary than the life of Catharine. The book is made out of the Memoirs of the Empress, written by herself, her correspondence published by the Historical Society of St. Petersburg, and some inedited documents in the Russian Archives.

A few hours after the death of Catharine, her son, the Emperor Paul, ordered his Chancellor, Count Rostoptchin, to place all her papers in the archives under the imperial seal. Among these papers was the famous letter in which Alexis Orloff announced to her the assassination of her husband, Peter III. There was also the manuscript of the Memoirs of Catharine, dedicated to the Tzesarevitch and the Grand Duke Paul. During the Crimean war the archives were transferred to Moscow, and, on their way, some copy of the Memoirs was taken, since, soon afterwards, two or three copies were circulating in Russian society. The Memoirs were published in England, with a preface by Hertzen, but have now become rather rare. They are the most valuable document that could be found for the history of Russia. What is there to be added to the account given of her early life by this extraordinary woman, who occupied the minds of all Europe, as Hertzen says, from Voltaire and Frederick the Great to the Khan of Crim-Tartary and the chiefs of the Kirghiz? To this invaluable document we can add now her correspondence. Of the seventy-two volumes forming the publications of the Russian Historical Society, nearly all have some rela-

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tion to the Empress Catharine. I have myself been able to read only the two volumes of her French correspondence with Grimm, which extend from 1774 to 1796. The first volume contains the letters of the Empress, the second the letters of Grimm. The Empress died on November 16, 1796. Her last letter to Grimm is dated October 20 of the same year. I can affirm that whoever has read the Memoirs and the correspondence with Grimm has a perfect knowledge of the character of Catharine. Waliszewski's book adds, on the whole, but little to the portrait which the "Sémiramis du Nord" has made of herself. It is not strange that Catharine has not yet found a Russian historian. Though the Russian archives have been generously opened, it is doubtful if any Russian would be found disposed to speak of a Russian Empress with absolute independence. M. Bilbassoff began a work on Catharine, which, unfortunately, was interrupted.

I confess having been put at once on my guard against M. Waliszewski by his style, for, as Buffon said, "Le style c'est l'homme." A severe historian would not write in this vein: "The second half of the eighteenth century, dark and troublous as a stormy night, was crossed by a glittering vision. Far away, under the snow of the mysterious North, a light appeared, like a rising star. . . . Before the tottering old European monarchies, a throne with Byzantine forms was rising with an unknown majesty, and a woman was ascending its steps in a red light, a lurid and bloody red light," etc., etc. What bathos! What a *galimatias!* How different from the free-and-easy, the rapid style of Catharine! She wrote as she thought, with decision. It is difficult to find more *naturel* than occurs in her rambling confidences to Grimm. Though she writes French incorrectly, mixing it up in an odd way with German phrases or words, nevertheless her letters are read with great pleasure. She has often very happy expressions; she is unexpected, original, clever. She takes an extraordinary interest in art, in literature. Grimm is her literary and artistic adviser, but she can give as well as receive advice. It is certainly curious to see a person in possession of the most absolute power, obliged to pursue the most complicated diplomatic negotiations, to rule over an immense empire almost without any help, much given—too much given—to pleasure, and nevertheless constantly improving her own mind, and not only her own, but also the mind of her lover of the day.

Lovers she had, it may be said, by the dozen. She was called a Messalina by her political enemies. History gives us the names of as many as ten favorites, who were acknowledged favorites, treated as such by the ambassadors and mentioned in their despatches; there were besides many others, who reigned only for a short time. Catharine had passions, she had caprices. Her husband, Peter III., was a kind of monster in every respect; he was hateful and contemptible. As he had no child, the Empress Elizabeth did not hesitate to insinuate to Catharine, when she was still a Grand Duchess, that she had better choose between Soltikoff and Narishkin. They were her first lovers; the Emperor Paul's father was most probably Sergius Soltikoff. Then came Poniatowski, whom she afterwards made King of Poland; and Gregory Orloff, who had given her the crown. Her greatest passion was probably for Lanskoi, who died young. There were officially ten favorites during her long reign.

Gregory Orloff remained the favorite during the ten years from 1762 to 1772. His family and himself in that period received from the Empress from 40,000 to 50,000 peasants and 17,000,000 rubles in silver, palaces, jewelry. Castéra, in his 'History of Catharine II.,' published in the beginning of this century, estimates the presents made to the known favorites at 92,820,000 rubles—something like 400,000,000 francs, according to the value of exchange at that time. The favorites were all made generals, marshals, ministers; the Empress, while they were in favor, consulted them about everything, but she remained the sole ruler of her empire. Was it because her will and her intelligence were the strongest, or because her favorites had more avarice than ambition? They never had the sort of influence which Mme. de Maintenon had over Louis XIV., which Mme. de Pompadour and even Mme. Du Barry had over Louis XV. Catharine was more manly than all the men whom she admitted, one after the other, into the imperial palace as mere consorts.

She was the ideal sovereign of the French philosophers. The liberalism of the French philosophical school did not go beyond the "benevolent despot." Voltaire, who was Catharine's god, called for an "enlightened sovereign." Such an ideal found its place in Russia better than anywhere else: no constitution, no parliament, no habeas corpus; no law, in a sense—the will of the sovereign absolutely omnipotent. It seemed perfectly natural to Catharine to be an autocrat. She came to Russia so young that she identified herself rapidly and completely with the Russian people. She was like a medal with two faces: on one side, you see the correspondent of Grimm, the admirer of Voltaire, the unbeliever, the Epicurean; on the other, you see the Russian *matushka*, worshipped by millions of *muzhiks*, the Byzantine Empress, head of the Orthodox Church, the moving spirit of the Slavic world, the Great Catharine. This extraordinary contrast gives a great charm to her correspondence. Her intelligence lays hold on everything. She is not systematic, she is always ready to adapt a new means to new ends. Grimm writes of her:

"It is necessary to have seen, at such moments, that singular head, compound of genius and of grace, to have a conception of the flow of ideas, of the sallies which crowded upon each other like the waters of a natural cascade. Why was it not in my power to write down those conversations literally? The world would have had a precious fragment, perhaps unique for the history of the human mind. The imagination and the reason were equally struck by that eagle eye, so profound and swift, which illumined everything like lightning."

Catharine, though she worked every day at improving her mind, and was a constant reader of Montesquieu and Blackstone as well as of the lighter French literature, was nevertheless more remarkable for her character than for her intellect. She had an indomitable will; she had identified her own ambition with that of Russia, and she gave a national character to all her undertakings. She had in view the resurrection of Greece, the enfranchisement of the Slavic populations of the Balkan peninsula. She dreamt of replacing the crescent with the cross on Saint Sophia in Constantinople; she gave to the second son of Paul the name of Constantine. She got a footing on the Black Sea after the Crimea had been conquered by Potemkin. We see in her letters maps, coarsely drawn in her hand, of the Caucasus; she wished to take Baku and Derbent. Speaking of Constantine, she writes on October 7, 1789: "He has a fine future. In thirty years he may well go from Sebastopol to Constantinople."

We can agree with M. Waliszewski when he writes:

"She was an extraordinary woman and a great sovereign. As a woman she proved that her sex was capable of rising to the level of the highest destinies and duties; as a sovereign she did as much for the greatness of Russia as Peter I. himself. She did not, however, as has been said, introduce her adopted country into the domain of European civilization; Russia is no more European now than she was two hundred years ago. She is neither Europe nor Asia; she has been justly called a sixth part of the world. This Russia, which is and seems to be destined to remain a world apart; which, though it is in contact with the great European interest, seems to follow its own impulse and to obey its own special law of development; which, though it draws its inspiration from Occidental culture, betrays no tendency to allow itself to be absorbed by it—this Russia, which Peter I. created, received from Catharine the consciousness of its strength, of its genius, and of its historical rôle."

We will end by saying that we should have much preferred that M. Waliszewski had given his work an historical and chronological form. The titles of his chapters will show what method he has followed. When Catharine becomes Empress we are treated to these chapters: "Physical Portrait, Character, Temperament—Intellect, Education—Ideas and Principles—Art of Governing—Domestic Policy—Foreign Policy—The Friend of the Philosophers—Catherine as a Writer—Inner Life—Family Life—Favoritism." This classification may be convenient for some researches, but it seems to us that the details of these numerous chapters might have found their place in a biography, and a biography has more life than a systematic enumeration of separate traits.

Correspondence.

VÆ VICTIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are some dimensions so enormous that we best obtain an adequate idea of them by comparison. Perhaps this method may be usefully employed to indicate the monstrous proportions of the United States pension expenditure.

When the Franco-Prussian war indemnity of five thousand millions of francs ($965,000,000) was exacted by Germany, the demand was considered a merciless exercise of the power of conquest. Will it be believed that by the close of the current fiscal year (June 30, 1893) the South will have paid for the support of Northern families *one hundred and eleven millions of dollars more* than an equivalent number of the French people were required to pay the conquering Germans as war indemnity?

By the close of next June the sum paid in pensions will amount in round numbers to fifteen hundred and seventy-five millions of dollars ($1,575,000,000). Now, the proportion of the Southern people to the whole population of the Union since the war has been remarkably constant at one-third, so that the South has contributed of that total one-third, or five hundred and twenty-five millions of dollars ($525,000,000). The average population of the South since the war has been fifteen millions, or three-sevenths of the population of France in 1871, so that the sum which the Southern people would have had to provide for the war indemnity to Germany, would have been three-sevenths of nine hundred and sixty-five millions of dollars, or four hundred and fourteen millions ($414,000,000), which is less

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by $111,000,000 than the South has already paid to the North, and the beginning of the end "is not yet." A. M. KEILEY.

CAIRO, January 18, 1893.

FRANCE AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A short time since I quoted from an article by the Comte de Vogüé to show that the problems of popular government are the same in France as in the United States, and may be summed up in the question how to arrive at a proper balance of executive and legislative power. I should like to clinch that quotation with some extracts from the *Chronique* of Charles de Mazade, also in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The details are different from ours, but the principle is the same:

"For more than ten years there has been formed on the surface of the country a class of impatient Republicans, greedy of domination, who have thrown themselves upon power as upon a prey, and have aimed at making the Republic the property of party, the monopoly of a sect. All their policy is to have a majority. They have created it, after a fashion, by the artifice of a concentration which is only an equivocal association of interest. They have maintained it as best they could by making a common stock of their passions and prejudices; by giving up to each other now moral peace and the security of religious faith, now the guarantees of financial order, one day the inviolability of the magistracy, the next social order itself, jeoparded by the agitations of workmen and Socialists. If by chance they felt themselves shaky, or about to split up, the great argument was always ready: they hinted at monarchical conspiracy or raised again the clerical question [the equivalent of the Democratic party]. They appealed to republican solidarity, and the ranks marched to the ballot-box without flinching. The main thing was to keep up the majority, to remain the masters. And thus has been formed by degrees a system in which all are deadened—moral sentiment as well as that of the law, of equity, of the rights of the State, of the authority of Government. And thus we have come to the point of relaxation in which public men, badly guarded against the temptations of power, have found it quite natural to lay the financiers under contribution for their cause and for themselves, to make a trade of their influence under the protection of republican solidarity.

"What is curious, without being new, is that those who never see any remedy for crises except in destruction and in new revolutions, now turn their weapons against the representative system and accuse it of all misfortunes and all mistakes. If the Panama affair happens, if the Government totters, if venality enters into public life, if the Chamber feels itself to be powerless and fallen in public esteem, if, in a word, confusion and suspicion are everywhere, it is the fault of representative government. Nonsense! Real representative government we have not got, and it is precisely because we have not got it, because we have only the fiction and the shadow of it, because it has been outrageously falsified, that everything goes by haphazard, without rule and without fixity.

"Is the chief of the State free to exercise the rights and powers which the Constitution gives him? The last President let those lose their edge and wither in his hands. The very honest President who is to-day at the Elysée has not been able or has not dared to renew them. If he undertook to have an opinion, an initiative, to demand new consideration for a law by Parliament, as he has a right to do, there would be an outcry about personal power. If he spoke of a dissolution, the cry would be of a *coup d'état*. He cannot, in his travels, use the elevated and moderate language of a chief magistrate without being accused of reaction, of conspiracy with the Pope. And thus one of the springs of the Constitution is broken. When the Chamber extends its sterile and jealous omnipotence over everything, when it contrives always to have an extra session by not voting the budget till the last moment, or not at all, is that representative government? When ministers are set up and pulled down by the freaks of an incoherent and precarious majority, without other result than taking another step forward, is that too representative government? When prime ministers degrade their functions till they become accomplices, direct or indirect, of the distribution of the funds of a company, or till they introduce shady financiers into State affairs, is that, forsooth, representative government?

"Is all that, in a word—a President who cannot exercise his rights, a Chamber which overrides its own, ministries which are formed by chance—is that representative government? It is the mockery of all government."

G. B.

BOSTON, February 4, 1893

THE ENGLISH AND AMERICAN SABBATH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In common with many other readers of the *Nation*, I have been much interested in the letters relating to the "American Sabbath" and the "Lord's Day in the Primitive Church" which you published on the 26th of January and the 2d of February. But I have been a little surprised that in neither letter is any mention made of the full discussion of this subject contained in the recently published work of Mr. Douglas Campbell, 'The Puritan in Holland, England, and America.' This author shows conclusively that the English and American Sabbath of to-day was not the outgrowth of the Reformation upon the Continent. The leading Continental reformers protested against the Jewish observance of Sunday, which was a festival and not a fast; Luther enjoyed his music on a Sunday afternoon, while John Calvin at Geneva went even further, permitting his young men to engage in military drill, while the old ones played at bowls. He himself often shared the amusements of the latter, and John Knox found him so engaged when he first made his acquaintance.

It has often been said by persons unacquainted with the subject that the introduction of the Jewish Sabbath into England was the work of the Puritans alone, and all sorts of errors have been made by historians in relation to the question when the word Sabbath-day, instead of Sunday, first appeared in official documents and acts of Parliament. Mr. Campbell shows that it was used in official documents as early as 1580, and in an act of Parliament in 1585. From that time on its use was very general.

Your correspondent "H." calls attention very justly to the remarkable influence exerted upon the English people by the treatise on the Sabbath published by Mr. Nicholas Bound in 1595, but he does not suggest any reasons for the exertion of this influence. Mr. Campbell shows that long before the appearance of this book the soil had been prepared for it through the conviction, which was taking possession of the whole English nation, that they were the chosen people of the Lord. Even before the destruction of the Armada this idea was widely entertained, and after that event it became universal. Hence it follows that the Old Testament, rather than the New, was looked upon as the rule of conduct for life. How strongly this idea had affected the English people for the last three centuries has been pointed out by Emerson, Hamerton, and many other writers.

But there are other conditions, also explained by Mr. Campbell, which account for the book's popularity among all sober-minded people. On the Continent the masses were sufficiently educated to understand that a part of Sunday could be given to social recreations, while the remainder was devoted to religious observances. But, as all the records show, the English Sunday was a day of wild riot, intemperance, and general profanation. Probably misconstruing some of the directions of Elizabeth, many of the working people saw no difference between Sunday and any other day. With those who abstained from toil, it was generally devoted to theatrical representations, rude sports, and drunkenness. Unless England was to be entirely debauched, and largely through its so-called day of rest, all this required a reformation. To work this reformation came the book of Dr. Bound, the importance and value of which can hardly be exaggerated. After the death of Elizabeth, the public theatres were closed on Sunday, Parliament refused to sit on that day, and, by a series of enactments extending down to the present time, Sunday servile work in England has been forbidden, and the masses have had a day of rest. Even after the Restoration in 1660, nothing could shake the devotion of the English people to the Jewish Sabbath.

This has been a great work, but the question is whether it is the best obtainable. The masses, shut off from innocent amusements, have resorted to the ale-house and tavern, and made the English Sunday a day of drunkenness. Persons sometimes point to a Parisian Sunday, and ask whether the superior morality of the English people does not prove that their mode of keeping Sunday is the better. As Mr. Campbell points out, the careful student will probably question the assumption of a superior morality in England. But, after all, the contrast is very misleading when made between peoples of different blood, different religions, and different habits of thought. A valuable comparison can, however, be instituted between England and Holland. In this case the two peoples are of the same blood and of the same religion. But the Hollanders have never adopted the Jewish Sabbath. Their libraries, museums, gardens, and public buildings have been open to the masses on Sunday, and certainly with no evil effects, since, in the matter of morality, they stand now and have always stood above the English. In England itself a new spirit seems to be at work. Years ago, Charles Kingsley encouraged the young men of his parish to play cricket on Sunday afternoon, in order to keep them from the ale-house. To-day a large body of English divines, headed by the Archbishop of Canterbury, favor the Sunday opening of British libraries and museums for the benefit of the masses. This cannot be long delayed. Whether the Fair at Chicago should be opened on Sunday, in whole or in part, is a matter about which there is naturally a marked difference of opinion. It is certainly, however, not in the interest of morality or religion to conceal or misrepresent the historical facts connected with the development of our present mode of keeping Sunday. G.

FEBRUARY 4, 1893.

"*MISTAKEN* SOULS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As above, or, more fully, with the words "*Mistaken* souls, that dream of Heaven," begins, in a mouldy myth, the enlivening hymn which was given out for the solace of a couple undergoing matrimony. Not to speak of the apocryphal ninth beatitude, here are suggested pneumatology, oneirology, gamology, and much besides; but

"On all these points, and points obscure as these,
Think they who will, and think whate'er they please."

Such profundities waived, then, my present business is with the incidence of philology on

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the humble vocable *mistaken*, in the acceptation of 'erring in judgment.'

Under the heading "To be *mistaken*," Dr. Johnson expounds in this wise: "*To mistake* has a kind of reciprocal sense; *I mistake*, 'je me trompe.' *I am mistaken* means *I misconceive, I am in an error*, more frequently than *I am ill understood;* but *my opinion is mistaken* means [sometimes] *my opinion is not rightly understood.*" When, however, did *mistake* signify 'deceive'? Of Dr. Johnson's principal editors, Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Latham, the first retains the comment which has been quoted, and the other omits it, though without substituting anything in its place. "The passive participle," alleges Bp. Lowth, "is often employed in an active sense in the word *mistaken*, used instead of *mistaking*." After citing Shakespeare's "You are too much *mistaken* in this king," he adds: "*I mistake* or *I am mistaking* means 'I misunderstand'; but *I am mistaken* means, properly, 'I am misunderstood.'" Meaning otherwise, it is improper, doubtless, if the ruling of an incogitant autocrat is to be preferred to the warrant of good usage. Farther, the Bishop ignores *mistake* as intransitive.

In the original edition of John Walker's *Critical Pronouncing Dictionary*, published in 1791, appears Dr. Johnson's "To be *mistaken*," his definition, 'To err,' and nothing more. But, in the second edition of that work, which came out in 1797, there is an ambitious note on Dr. Johnson's exposition of the phrase. Here is an extract from it: "The verb in question, *I am mistaken*, for *I am mistaking*, seems . . . to be what the Latins call a verb *Deponent*, an active verb with a passive form; an irregularity which is no recommendation to the Latin Language, and is a blemish to ours." "This irregularity," Walker maunders, "has long been an eyesore to our Grammarians, but has got such possession of the language as to render it almost incurable"; as if grammarians of English, for the most part, were not a beef-witted, self-confident, and opinionated crew, who, except for their being purblind, would less frequently fancy the existence of linguistic deformities. And Walker also tenders the following valuable information and sapient counsel: "Our old writers were ignorant of Grammar, and thought all phrases good that did not quarrel with the ear; but that is not the case since the labours of Johnson and Lowth. The best way, therefore, to remedy these abuses is, to avoid them in future"; a sort of consummation which will be feasible when a head that has been broken can be healed by not breaking it again.

The phrase *to be mistaken*, remarks Dr. Richardson, "has a two-fold application." Touching the second of its applications, the one with which I am concerned, he pronounces: "I am *mistaken—i. e., taken*, led, drawn the wrong course or path, astray; I am misled, misguided, betrayed; and, consequentially, I go wrong or astray, I err, I misapprehend." This, one cannot but acknowledge, is, as sophistry, excellent.

Mr. B. H. Smart, the lexicographer, bids us recognize, in the *I am mistaken* here considered, "an adjective," denoting 'wrong—erroneous in judgement, view, or opinion,' which "must be distinguished from the participle passive or past, as in . . . 'I am *mistaken* by my hearers,' . . . where the sense is different from that of the adjective." But, just as there, so, in *mistaken meaning*, 'misapprehended meaning,' is not *mistaken* the same part of speech that we have in *I am mistaken* and *mistaken souls?* Since, however, it is only in the latter phrases that Mr. Smart sees an adjective, can it be that he derives his "adjective" *mistaken* from the substantive *mistake*, as *wooden* is derived from *wood?* At any rate, he has repeatedly betrayed that he is quite capable of such an enormity of philologastry. To this effect indicate, for example, besides his *chrestomachy, curriculus*, etc., etc., his *dislogistic*, with the wonderful definitions of it: "'Illogical; undoing by argument what seemed to be previously established by it.' In the first sense, at least, if not in the second, the word is ill-formed." In spite of what I observed in *Modern English* (1873) respecting *dislogistic*, this cacograph, and also Mr. Smart's fatuity about it, are retained in the latest edition of Webster's *Dictionary* (1880), and in the latest edition of Worcester's (1881), to which I have access, with the addition, in both, of Jeremy Bentham's *dyslogistic*, as something different, which, forsooth, it is, with a witness.

The Rev. Mark Anthony Meilan, dogmatizing in 1803, classes *you are mistaken*, 'you err,' among "anomalous or uncouth phrases," and despatches it thus: "This means, really, *you are misunderstood;* because *mistaken*, as it follows the verb *are*, is an adjective, whereas the intended meaning is that you *mistake*." The author's whim in calling *mistaken* "an adjective" is founded on his rejection of a passive voice in English. With him, differing from Mr. Smart, equally with the *mistaken* after *are*, the *misunderstood* in *you are misunderstood* is, as he expressly teaches, an adjective. As to the Meilanite logic, it is quite beyond me.

Dean Alford lays it down that, in *I am mistaken*, 'I have made a mistake,' the verb is "in the passive, to carry what should be its active meaning." Mr. Edward S. Gould laments that such an expression is "one of the most widely disseminated of philological errors." According to Dr. William B. Hodgson, we have, in the litigated *I am mistaken*, a "quasi-middle usage"; he can discover "no true analogy to" it; and he scouts it as impure English. Once more, Mr. Alfred Ayres desiderates the emergence of "some theory upon which the locution *you are mistaken*," as ordinarily employed, "could be defended." But I may well have done transcribing effusions which, as will be evinced, determine nothing but their own emptiness. Their authors, one and all, were unfavored, in their gropings after the truth, with any the faintest glimpse of a glimmer of helpful enlightenment. Yet, to guide them aright, nothing more was requisite than a little circumspection.

In the same boat with the *mistaken souls* aforesaid, for which there are seventeenth-century precedents, are, in the contemplation of grammar, *advanced scholars, aged saints, apostatized churches, backslidden sinners, coalesced parties, decayed cheesemongers, departed joys, escaped convicts, expired leases, fallen angels, gone sinners, grown women, practised writers, relapsed heretics, retired statesmen, strayed sheep, vanished charms, waned moon, risen Lord*, and—in heaven above, in the earth beneath, and where good Presbyterians would send naughty Professor Briggs—a miscellany of other persons and things far too numerous to particularize. *Clamans in deserto*, and therefore unheard by the far-off world, I proclaimed all this, substantially, one and twenty years ago, in my *Recent Exemplifications of False Philology*, p. 37, where *mistaken eulogist*, 'eulogist who errs,' is adduced in the course of a discussion aiming to establish that *experienced*, in *experienced man*, is not based directly on a substantive. Curiously enough, the nicety on which I am dwelling was lately proposed afresh for consideration by Mr. Thomas Adolphus Trollope, immediately after he had read my book just named, as he informed me in a pleasant letter of eight pages written but five days before his sudden and lamented death. That what I there say has a distinct bearing on that nicety must have escaped his notice.

Expired leases affords one of the many instances of the adjectival use of the past participle of a verb intransitive; and, if the verb *mistake* had been intransitive only, who would not have perceived, at once, that *mistaken souls*, as here discoursed on, is precisely on all fours with it? And, as it is, who, unconfused by the thought of the transitive *mistake*, can help perceiving that *I am mistaken*, 'I have fallen into error,' has a perfect analogue in *the leases are expired?* Obviously, too, if, as we have no practical transitive *miscarry*, we had no transitive *mistake*, the employment of *I mistake*, 'I err,' *I have mistaken*, 'I have erred,' and the like, would be much more current than is now the case.

No one, assuredly, could have had any difficulty in justifying the phraseology under treatment, if he had reflected on the fact that, whereas the combination formed by *have* and a past participle is dynamic, that which is formed by *be* and such a participle is static. *Has expired* denotes action; *is expired*, as likewise *expired* qualifying *leases*, denotes state resulting from action. In the latter, *expired* is virtually, though not in scientific nomenclature, an adjective. Only in being derived from a verb does it partake of the characteristics of a participle.

It must, by this time, be clearly evident that *the mistaken man*, 'the erring man,' and *the man is mistaken*, 'in error,' are to be explained, in rigid strictness, as 'the man in the condition of having mistaken, or of having made a mistake,' and 'the man is in the condition,' and so forth. Practically, however, *the mistaken man*, or the man who *is mistaken*, 'in error,' is he of whom *mistaking*, 'making a mistake,' whether in the past, the present, or the future, may be predicated. Time is here indeterminate, as it is in *a running stream*.

Though *mistake*, intransitive, has so early authority as that of Robert Mannyng, about 1330, the transitive *mistake*, as I learn from Dr. Murray, of the *New English Dictionary*, has not been observed to have come up till some fifty years later. On the transitive use of the verb, on the substantive *mistake*, the participial adjective *mistaking*, the adverbs *mistakingly* and *mistakenly*, etc., there is no occasion that I should touch.

Mistaken souls, indeed, and mistaken from peculiarity in their gift of apprehension, must be those who, after patiently pondering what has been set forth above, refuse to accept the proffered rationale of the phrase by which they are to be designated. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, Jan. 15, 1893.

P. S.—In No. 1427, greatly disabling my argument, I have said, nodding, that the substantive *pervert* denotes 'a personal agent.' For this read "a person acted upon," or simply, if I may so put it, "a patient." It is, above all, in being passive that it differs from *cheat*, "cheater," which is active.

But to "a patient" I should prefer "a patiential" or "patiential," to match *an agential* and *agential*—technicalities which I proposed many years ago, and which have been, to some extent, taken up. *Perverter* is agential. One ought not to flout a scientific term, accepted or

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candidate, for its ugliness, if it is usefully distinctive.

Notes.

D. Lothrop Co., Boston, have in press 'Seaward,' an elegy on the death of Thomas William Parsons, by Richard Hovey; 'In the Wake of Columbus,' by Frederick A. Ober, copiously illustrated; and 'Oliver Cromwell,' by Geo. H. Clark, D.D.

Ginn & Co., Boston, announce for next month an abridgment of Ormsby's translation of 'Don Quixote,' edited for children by M. F. Wheaton.

The Century Company is about to publish 'A Handbook of Invalid Cooking,' by Mary A. Boland, instructor in cooking at the Johns Hopkins Training School for Nurses. Besides recipes, some ideas are given in this book of nutrition, digestion, chemical changes in food, etc.

Macmillan & Co. announce as nearly ready the first volume of Henry Craik's "English Prose Writers," uniform with the companion series, T. H. Ward's "English Poets." The specimens from each writer's works are prefaced by brief notices of the life and surroundings of the author, the scope of his work, with a critical description of his style and methods, and of his place in the development of English prose. The part now ready covers the period from the fourteenth to the end of the sixteenth century. There will be two editions, corresponding to the Cabinet and Students' editions of Ward's "Poets."

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly publish 'Literary Criticism for Students,' by Prof. Edward T. McLaughlin of Yale, a book of selections on literary æsthetics by the great English critics from Sir Philip Sydney to Walter Pater; also, 'Representative English Literature,' by Henry S. Pancoast, University Extension Lecturer.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'Andrew Jackson,' in their "Great Commanders" series, the last literary labor of the late James Parton.

The death of Cyrus W. Field has seemed a fitting occasion to furbish the monument to his greatest achievement, and the Scribners have accordingly brought out a new edition of Dr. Henry M. Field's 'History of the Atlantic Telegraph,' more handsomely set, and more or less revised by the author. Dr. Field has added a chapter or two personal to his brother, whose career is recorded to its sombre end, and whose portrait serves as a frontispiece. The memorial is justly due to one who was the cause of perhaps the greatest difference between the world into which he was born and that from which he departed. It will be Cyrus Field's triumph, too, when, as we may expect, the telephone service also shall be submarine, and when Emerson's metaphor of the Concord "shot heard round the world" shall be overtaken by practical acoustics.

To the reprint of the first edition of 'David Copperfield' (Macmillan) the younger Dickens prefixes but a few words. What passed as his father's masterpiece was written with the greatest ease and least draft upon his nervous system, and has, properly speaking, no history. Mr. Dickens intimates the bounds to its autobiographical and family portraiture, and censures Mr. Forster for not excising "the half-dozen or so lines, which cannot but have come as a shock to most people," in the novelist's posthumous confession of his bitter feelings towards his parents—his mother in particular.

All the improvements claimed for 'Hazell's Annual' for 1893 (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners) will be found to exist in fact. This valuable statistical handbook has always bestowed much attention on Labor, and now essays with good success to give a conspectus of the movement the world over—a "movement," of course, in which strikes play a conspicuous part. A new rubric, for which enlargement may be expected, pertains to matters Medical. The lists of Peers and Commons have been displayed to better advantage than formerly. New titles, like Paderewski, and old, like Blaine, Cleveland, Kossuth, Panama Canal, etc., show the editor's care in bringing the work down to date.

'The Horsewoman,' by Alice M. Hayes (W. Thacker & Co.), conveys the usual information in regard to side-saddle riding which women are supposed to be in search of, and is sufficiently well illustrated. It is by no means so clear or so attractive as "C. de Hurst's" manual, which we recently noticed, and too much space is given to advertising the author's remarkable success as a horsewoman, repeating all the flattering things the newspapers have said of her, and recommending the public to read her husband's books.

'Figure Skating, Simple and Combined' (Macmillan & Co.) will doubtless prove interesting to the young people who are taking advantage of the present season and the facilities offered by the various skating-clubs for indulging in their favorite pastime. Mr. Monier-Williams and his associates seem to have said all that it was possible to say on the subject, and they are duly impressed with the alleged superiority of English figure-skating over that practised in any other country. It is of course exceedingly difficult to make comparisons, but it is safe to say that this superiority cannot yet be regarded as a fixed fact.

'Old Sword Play' (B. Westermann & Co.) is a handsome volume, chiefly remarkable for the illustrations, which are reproduced from the works of Morozzo, Alfieri, Angelo, and others. These illustrations are accompanied by a somewhat slender account of the various systems of sword play, which cannot be said to add anything to previous treatises on the subject.

Columbia College announces two prizes, of $1,000 and $400, offered by Mr. Joseph F. Loubat, for the best works published in English on the (1) history, geography, numismatics, (2) archæology, ethnology, or philology of North America. The author need not be a citizen of the United States. The works in question must have been published since January 1, 1888, and must be based on original research. Copies must be sent, not later than June 1 of the present year, to the President of Columbia College, whose Secretary will furnish copies of the regulations adopted. Mr. Loubat's endowment will permit an award at least every five years alternately in the two groups of subjects shown above. After the present year, the foundation will be employed to stimulate research—*i. e.*, to reward works written expressly in view of the prizes.

The Calendar of the Imperial University of Tokio for 1891-'92, besides giving the detail of students and instructors, furnishes a complete list of the publications of the medical and scientific departments. While there are four volumes of monographs in science, most of them in English, and twenty-two medical papers in German, the college of literature is still represented by one essay, Prof. Chamberlain's "Aino Studies." The students number 1,346, and the graduates and alumni 1,589. The statistical tables show that the extremities of the empire and every prefecture in it are represented, the average age of students at graduation being twenty-four. Another interesting conspectus shows the occupations of graduates, the majority being in Government employ, and about fifty studying in special courses abroad. There is a map of the grounds of the University, once the superb city headquarters of the daimio of Kaga, the richest of the old feudal lords, in whose dominions the characteristic red and gold porcelain was made. One of the most interesting pages is that devoted to the scholarships founded by private munificence, one being in memory of Hatakéyama Yoshinari, one of the Japanese best known to Americans. Very appropriately, these scholarships are in law and chemistry, courses which were founded by this zealous scholar, who was so powerful an agent in the development of the old language-school into the university.

Apropos of the issue this month of the "enriched" or standard Book of Common Prayer in the United States, there is on the press, in Japan, a translation of the English parent book into the Ainu tongue. The Rev. John Batchelor, an English clergyman, of the Church Missionary Society, whose work on the Ainu of Japan we lately reviewed, is the competent translator.

A peep into the literary life of Old Japan, and especially of the scholars of Yedo, has been afforded readers of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan by the Rev. George W. Knox, American missionary of the Presbyterian Church. Dr. Knox has given, in condensed and readable form, the substance of the philosophy of Kyusō, the most orthodox and influential of the Confucian teachers in Yedo. His system being the prop of the Tokugawa militarism, or Tycoonism, it had the protection of the Yedo Government, and opposition to it was banned as heterodoxy. Other scholars who made the critical study of the Chinese sage a means of intellectual emancipation, and occasionally a motor of political loyalty to the Emperor in Kioto, were apt to continue their meditations in jail, with the confiscation of their writings. Dr. Knox is now engaged upon a translation of the autobiography of Arai Hakuséki, which is probably unique in the literature of Japan. This rationalistic scholar, the Ewald of Japan, who interpreted in the light of science the myths of the ancient books, lived between the years 1656-1725, and gives in his work a lively picture of literary life, opinions, and procedure in the Shogun's capital.

A *Privat-gymnasium* for girls will be opened at Easter at Weimar, with the object of preparing women for the universities. A similar gymnasium was opened last October at Vienna.

An introductory lecture of a course on Egyptology was delivered in London on January 14 by Mr. Flinders Petrie, the first holder of the professorship at University College founded by the late Miss Amelia B. Edwards. In it he referred to the fact that, while the Governments of Germany, France, and Italy had liberally assisted students, the English Government, notwithstanding its position in Egypt for the past ten years, "had done nothing, and even private enterprise had been hindered rather than helped by English diplomacy." It would be his aim to provide a library and museum for the use of students, and he hoped to have a series of annual loan exhibitions. In addition to courses of lectures, students would be prepared for practical work in Egypt, and Mr. Petrie stated that from $1,500 to $2,000 would cover all the expenses of an excavator

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for one season. Some of the best recent works on Egyptian art and history were mentioned, but, "for the general outlines of the whole subject," Wilkinson was still the best. Mr. Petrie concluded with a rapid sketch of what still remained to be done in Egyptology.

The existence of a race of dwarfs on the Atlas range, about which there was an animated controversy last year, has received unexpected confirmation. Mr. Walter B. Harris, who has just returned from a journey in southern Morocco, communicates these facts to the London *Times:* While travelling along the foot of the mountains he saw thirteen or fourteen persons, none of whom were over four feet six inches in height, natives of the upper mountain regions. The Moors described them "as a wild people, living in built houses in the rocks and snow, hunting mouflon with extraordinary agility, and given to shooting any one penetrating to their domains." He attributes their small stature, not, as some have asserted, to the fact that they are the remnants of the troglodytes, but to the circumstances in which they live. He believes them to be "merely a certain collection of Shleh tribes, who, through the high altitudes at which they live, and the extremes of climate they are subject to, from their poverty and inability to grow crops, from the scarcity and bad quality of such food as they are able to collect, have, in the lapse of centuries, become of almost extraordinarily stunted growth." On his return journey to the coast Mr. Harris visited the artificial caves of Ain Tarsilt, which, from the height of the roofs and the size of the doors, windows, and alcoves for beds, were evidently the work of dwarfs. He does not venture an opinion, however, as to whether any descendants of this people are still living.

The pleasant villages of Vevay and Montreux, on the banks of Lake Geneva in Switzerland, favorite resorts of summer travellers, appear to be exposed to a peculiar danger from the tendency of their wharves to slip down into the waters of the lake. The villages are situated on small deltas, built by torrential streams that descend from the neighboring hills. The outer slope of the deltas, beneath the lake level, lies at as steep an angle as can be maintained by pebbles and sands. When an additional weight, such as that of masonry and wharf construction, is added to their edge, equilibrium is destroyed, and a catastrophe often follows. At Vevay a number of accidents of this kind are described by Dr. Schardt in a recent Bulletin of the Société Vaudoise. At Vevay a long wharf slipped into the lake on May 11, 1877, and at Montreux a wharf and some adjoining parts of the shore, occupying in all about ten thousand square feet, quietly sank on May 19, 1891. A heavy storm of wind and rain prevailed at the time, and no one was on the wharf when it disappeared.

The *American Anthropologist* for January contains an article on the distribution of stone implements in the tide-water country of Virginia and Maryland, by W. H. Holmes, in which he gives a novel and suggestive interpretation to the rough-chipped stones such as have been heretofore called palæolithic. Mr. Holmes shows very clearly that the rough-chipped stones found around Washington are simply "rejects," discarded for some unsatisfactory behavior in the hands of the Indians who worked them. Complete sequences of specimens illustrate the advance from the unworked cobble-stones of the old river beds, through the rougher or finer rejects, to the finely chipped or polished implements. The rejects are never taken far from the "workshops" where the original material was got out, but the finished implements are carried far and wide from these centres of distribution. Whatever date may finally be given to rough-chipped stones embedded in undisturbed river gravels, it is clear that the principles of interpretation announced by Mr. Holmes must be carefully introduced in a revision of much that has been published about so-called "palæolithic man" in America.

The age of the earth is discussed by Mr. Clarence King in the January number of the *American Journal of Science* on the basis of certain experiments made in the laboratory of the United States Geological Survey by Mr. Carl Barus on the behavior of rocks under high temperatures and pressures. Assuming certain initial distributions of temperature within the earth, it is found that an age of 24,000,000 years is the most probable measure of the time since a permanent crust was formed and geological processes were introduced; and this involves such a present distribution of internal temperatures as is consistent with essential solidity of the rock mass within, because downward increase of pressure more than counterbalances the effect of downward increase of heat. Mr. King finds evidence of the correctness of this time-measure first in the physical evidence of the behavior of the earth as a solid under tidal strains, and second in the limits set to the past supply of solar heat by the estimates of Helmholtz and Kelvin. In the February number of the same periodical Mr. George F. Becker makes a contribution to the history of the physical term "potential" (*subs.*) that will be serviceable to Dr. Murray and the 'New English Dictionary.'

Two articles extracted from the Bulletin of the United States Fish Commission—on the physical and biological characteristics of the natural oyster-grounds of South Carolina, and on the present methods of oyster-culture in France, both by Mr. Bashford Dean—possess an exceptional interest on account of the numerous accompanying photographic views. The phosphate industry in the beds of the Carolina rivers is, it appears, injurious to the oyster not by reason of any chemical pollution, but by the mere mechanical disturbance of the water with sediment.

The political vagaries of the present population of Kansas have induced much speculation as to the cause of them. That the lack of newspapers does not count is evident from the list published in the eighth annual report of the Kansas Historical Society. It fills twenty-nine pages, and with very few exceptions every paper thus recorded is sent as a free gift to the Society, which binds and cares for it. A like enlightened spirit governs the press of Wisconsin in reference to the library of the State Historical Society.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, reissues, on a sad occasion, his panel photographic portrait of the late Phillips Brooks. No better has come under our observation. More generally acceptable may be Mr. Gutekunst's reduction of the same portrait to cabinet size, printed in permanent ink on plate paper by his exceptionally good process. A number of curious early portraits of the great preacher, his teachers and friends, with views of his churches and his haunts, accompany a paper on Bishop Brooks by the Rev. Julius H. Ward, reprinted from the Boston *New England Magazine.*

—The thirty-third volume of Sidney Lee's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan) carries the letter L along to Llwelyn. The explorer Livingstone is allowed twelve pages, and this is more, we think, than any other personage between these covers gets; nor, indeed, is there among them any whose influence on mankind and the course of history surpasses his, or whose fame will continue to grow like his as the vast "Dark Continent" undergoes the civilizing transformation due to his impulse. From this, though not from a literary, point of view, the ten pages given to Sir Robert L'Estrange seem disproportionate—L'Estrange, who, according to Dr. Johnson, was the first hireling partisan journalist. That odd protégé of Dr. Johnson's, Dr. Robert Levett, is the subject of a very bright and rather touching sketch. There is a charitable account of Charles Lever, whose strictly English pedigree is remarked upon. The notice of Mark Lemon recalls the extensive "theatre" of this playwright founder of *Punch*, which in its trying early years was maintained by his stage profits. Leslie Stephen's fine hand appears in the notices of "Monk" Lewis, as well as of G. H. Lewes, of whom it is recorded that in an article in the *British Quarterly* in 1847, upon "Browning and the Poetry of the Age," he held up Tennyson as the only true poet living. Of Lewes's conjugal infelicities, Mr. Stephen says incisively: "The views of marriage held by Lewes and his immediate circle were not more strict than those of Godwin and Shelley. When, however, the conduct of the persons concerned exemplified the theories which he had inculcated, complications arose which became practically trying." In this volume are also embraced John Leland, earliest of English antiquaries; Lemprière, whose Classical Dictionary had "the merit of being readable"; J. J. Lester, who worked out the principles of the modern microscope; Edward Lloyd, godfather of "Lloyd's"; that shifty statesman, William Lenthall, Speaker of the House of Commons, conveniently blind when Charles I. would arrest the five members; Sir G. Cornewall Lewis, whose *mot*, "Life would be tolerable but for its amusements," should not lose currency; and Jenny Lind. Nor must we omit to mention the sketches of theologians so recently among us as Bishop Lightfoot, Canon Liddon, and R. F. Littledale.

—The well-known Swiss Dante scholar, Dr. G. A. Scartazzini, has just published (Milan: Hoepli) an abridged edition of his larger commentary on the 'Divine Comedy,' which seems likely to meet with much favor and probably to supplant for general uses all the smaller Italian editions. It is, for instance, decidedly superior to Fraticelli's, for though the two volumes are of about the same size, the thin (but tough) paper on which Scartazzini's is printed gives him fully two hundred pages the advantage. The print, moreover, is beautifully clear, that of the notes as well as that of the text, and the various sizes and styles of type are so skilfully arranged that the eye finds readily and without fatigue what it seeks. The text is virtually that of the larger edition. The notes in most cases are abridged from the same; in not a few cases, however, the editor has taken advantage of later researches or of the commentaries—notably that of Benvenuto da Imola—which have been published since the appearance of the Leipzig edition. So far as a rapid examination can discover, there is a gratifying absence of the polemic writing which has at times marred Scartazzini's work. The price is only four *lire*. The preface announces that the editor has in hand a complete revision, under the title of 'Dantalogia,' of his 'Dante,' published in 1883 in the Hoepli series

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of manuals, and translated into English in 1887 by Dr. Davidson.

—Three years ago our readers' attention was directed to the then recently concluded barometric observations of Prof. A. Heilprin among the giant volcanoes of Mexico, made with a view to redetermining the elevations of the four principal summits of the Republic, the Nevado de Toluca, Ixtaccihuatl, Popocatepetl, and Citlaltepetl (or Peak of Orizaba, as it is commonly called). The results obtained showed, contrary to common supposition, that the Peak of Orizaba (18,205 feet) exceeded Popocatepetl in elevation by nearly seven hundred feet, and that it was justly entitled to the first position among the Mexican mountains, if not among all the summits of the North American Continent. Much incredulity was at the time expressed regarding this determination of altitude, and it even appears that considerable feeling was aroused by it in the City of Mexico, so justly proud of the "smoky mountain," one of the "watch towers" of the Valley of Anahuac, are the inhabitants of the Mexican capital. More recent determinations of the two rival summits, made by J. T. Scovell of Terre Haute, Ind., in charge of a special commission of exploration, confirm Prof. Heilprin's measurements, and place them within an unusually narrow margin of error. The average of the barometric determinations of the Peak of Orizaba gives 18,179 feet, and of the triangulation, 18,314 feet—a mean of 18,246 feet. Assuming this altitude to be approximately correct (and it is so conceded by the editor of the Royal Geographical Society's Proceedings), the question as to the culminating point of the North American Continent resolves itself into a consideration of the claims of Orizaba and Mount St. Elias. The latter mountain, which the earlier determinations of Russell and Kerr had almost consigned to the level of the higher peaks of Colorado and California, has since been reconstituted by Russell into a mountain of the first order, with an elevation of approximately 18,100 feet. As such it confirms the position stated in the *Nation*, that while a close rival of the Mexican peak, its place is probably after, rather than before, that mountain.

—In his forty-seventh annual report, Prof. Pickering, Director of the Harvard College Observatory, makes fitting allusion to the death of a second member of the famous firm of Alvan Clark & Sons, Mr. George B. Clark, to whose genius for mechanical devices, indomitable perseverance, and devotion to the interests of the Observatory, the success of many of the most useful of the Harvard instruments is due. While, as noted in previous years, the work with the equatorials and the meridian instruments, circle and photometer, is systematically prosecuted, the research of the Henry Draper Memorial continues to absorb very largely the interests of the Observatory. Two eight-inch telescopes are constantly photographing the sky, about 2,800 plates having been taken with the Draper telescope at home, and nearly 2,000 with the Bache telescope of like pattern in Peru. A fruitful research with these plates has been the repeated discovery of variable stars, which are readily distinguished by having the hydrogen lines bright in their spectra. The valuable material continually accumulating with these instruments has frequently proved useful in studying the history of newly discovered objects, conspicuously so in the case of Nova Aurigæ, which was found to have been photographed more than twenty times antecedently to its discovery. The last plates of this now familiar object show its spectrum resembling that of a planetary nebula. With the eleven-inch Draper spectrograph nearly a thousand photographs were taken, about one-third of them being spectra of β Aurigæ, from which will be determined the law of that remarkable periodic doubling of the lines which is regarded as indicating actual duplicity of the star itself. In the lunar eclipse rather more than a year ago, attempt was made, both at Cambridge and in Peru, to photograph a possible satellite of the moon, but with only a further accumulation of negative evidence of the existence of such a body.

—By the establishment of the fund bearing his name, the wish of Mr. Boyden, who desired to secure an astronomical station where atmospheric hindrances would be greatly diminished, has been eminently fulfilled in the Harvard station at Arequipa, Peru. A quivering atmosphere is no longer, as heretofore, the chief obstacle to the progress of observations of the first order, and a limit would now seem to be enforced rather by the size of available telescopes. At 8,000 feet elevation, Prof. W. H. Pickering has employed a thirteen-inch telescope in a critical scrutiny of the planet Mars at its recent near approach to the earth, determining exact positions of nearly a hundred points on its surface, discovering forty minute black points (provisionally designated lakes), and measuring the oblateness of our neighboring planet, which, it is found, may possibly have an excess of equatorial cloud. Also, the reality of the so-called canals of Schiaparelli has been confirmed, various measurements of them secured, and the relative colors of different portions of the planetary disk made the matter of minute record. Nor have Mercury and Venus been neglected, the behavior of the markings on the surface of the former confirming Schiaparelli's view that axial rotation and orbital revolution of this planet are accomplished in the same time, while on Venus no permanent markings whatever were detectable. The Magellanic clouds, too, have come in for their share of attention, the result having been reached that their light is due partly to stars and in part to nebulous matter. Meteorology also is regularly attended to, with observations not only at Arequipa, but at the Chachani Ravine, elevation 16,650 feet, as yet the loftiest meteorological observatory in the world. Little space is left for mention of the Bruce photographic telescope, of twenty-four inches diameter, now about to be brought into operation at Cambridge, and which, if successful, will be in many respects the most powerful telescope in the world. After a period of use upon the northern sky, it will be sent to the Boyden station in Peru for a few years' study of the southern heavens, upon which only a very few telescopes of great capacity have yet been turned.

—Russian agriculture is the subject of a report recently issued by the British Foreign Office. From this it appears that in European Russia, as a whole, the spring crops of 1892 were again considerably below the average, while in three of the sixteen so-called "famine governments" the harvest hardly repaid the cost of ingathering; in ten more it was deficient in quality and in quantity; and in only three was it fairly abundant. The autumn harvest, on account of a long drought in April and May, the scorching winds of August and September, and an incursion of locusts, was believed to be still worse. In five provinces (Saratov, Riazan, Tula, Kursk, and Voronezh) the yield of the whole year has not been sufficient to feed their 10,000,000 inhabitants, and by this time, unless they have been relieved from other districts, they are reduced to starvation rations. But their ability to meet this scarcity is less than it was a year ago. Then they had cattle and a little money laid up. Now their cattle have been sold or eaten and their money has been spent. In some districts one may wander by the hour without seeing a horse or a cow. In the Government of Saratov, for instance, there were in May, 1891, 2,000,000 head of cattle; to-day there are probably not 100,000, while, in addition, the debts of the peasantry of the sixteen famine governments for unpaid taxes and borrowed money amount to more than $100,000,000. The direct cause of last year's failure in these provinces appears to have been the fact that the seed sent by the Government was poor in quality and deficient in quantity, and was not distributed until some three weeks after the time for sowing. The gradual deterioration of agriculture in this region—the famous black-soil country, the most fertile in Europe—is attributed in the report to three principal causes. The ruthless destruction of the great encircling forests, by which the moisture has been diminished and the protection from the scorching winds has been taken away, has changed the climate. The Mir system of land-tenure, by which the arable land is divided by lot every three years, tends to exhaust the soil, the temporary cultivator naturally desiring to get all he can from his land and being unwilling to enrich it for the benefit of his successor. The third cause is the oppressive taxation and the time of collecting the taxes, immediately at the close of harvest and before the crops are sold. From all these causes combined, and taking into consideration the ignorance of the Russian peasant and his tendency to fatalism, there is great reason to fear that the famine conditions are becoming chronic.

MAHAN'S SEA-POWER.—II.

The Influence of Sea-Power upon the French Revolution and Empire. 1793-1812. By Capt. A. T. Mahan, U.S.N. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Capt. Mahan's second volume treats of the civil and administrative, as well as naval, warfare against commerce during the Napoleonic wars, and discusses in a critical and appreciative manner the career and Ministry of the younger Pitt. The struggle for existence between France (or rather Napoleon) and Great Britain, represented mainly by the two personalities of Pitt and the Emperor, enters into almost every page, and the strength of the sea-power of Great Britain is as clearly shown upon its commercial side as it is in the more familiar and vivid aspects in which the forces of war were employed. At the end of 1799, when Napoleon assumed the First Consulate and made overtures for peace to Great Britain which received an impossible answer, the power and prosperity of that country, notwithstanding the immense burdens of the war, had greatly increased. Her insular position and control of the sea gave her peace at home, while from the maritime and commercial paralysis of France and Holland, her great rivals, she had now become both the warehouse and factory of Europe. The foreign trade, which in the last year of peace had amounted to £44,500,000, in 1800 exceeded £73,000,000 in value, and thus Pitt was able so to

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increase the revenue that the receipts above the great war taxes far exceeded anything known before. At this time, although Napoleon was almost supreme upon the Continent, his dominion upon the sea was limited to the range of his guns from shore, and, notwithstanding the abundance of French corsairs and attempts upon English commerce, the carrying trade was under the control of England, and not a single merchant-vessel was upon the sea carrying the French flag.

The armed neutrality of 1800 and the peace of Lunéville left Great Britain alone in 1801 in her war against France, who was aided for the moment directly or indirectly by the rest of Europe. The Baltic expedition, aimed against the Northern Powers, with Nelson as the fighting spirit, sailed in March to attack the Russian and Danish fleets. The latter, under the protection of the guns of Copenhagen, was committed to a stationary defence, and Nelson proposed to his superior to go direct to Revel and attack the Russian fleet and destroy it, suggesting, also, the alternative of a detachment of ten ships for that purpose and "with the remainder attempt the business at Copenhagen." Nelson's bold suggestion receives the strongest commendation from the author as a blow at the soul of the Confederation, or, as Nelson terms it, "a hewing of the trunk" which would carry the limbs in its fall. The author fails, however, to condemn, as we think he should, the alternative which would expose the English fleet to a defeat in detail, as the remainder left for the Danes would not have been sufficient to provide for the contingencies that might and did arise before Copenhagen. The battle of Copenhagen was never a popular one in England, and neither his country nor history has given Nelson credit for the courage, skill, and endurance displayed upon this occasion. Fighting from fixed defences, the courage and endurance of the Danes were most marked. Jurien de la Gravière, the first of French naval critics, says of the fight and Nelson's merits upon the occasion, that "they will always be, in the eyes of seamen, his fairest title to glory. He alone was capable of displaying such boldness and perseverance, he alone could confront the immense difficulties of that enterprise and overcome them."

Events in this notable year followed each other rapidly: the Russian fleet escaped from Revel, the armed neutrality was dissolved, Bonaparte's attempts to relieve Malta and Egypt failed, and, finally, his endeavors to collect a fleet of the allied forces at Cadiz upon the flank of the English communications with the Mediterranean resulted in the battle of Algesiras, with its varied fortunes but ultimately disastrous results for the allies. The advantages of the interior position were well exemplified here, and the strategic superiority of the fleet or squadron that closely masks an enemy's port. Soon after, peace was declared, leaving Great Britain with a naval force of 202 ships of the line, as against 135 with which she had commenced the war, while France, beginning with 80 ships, found herself with but 30 at the end.

In 1803 war again began, Cornwallis sailing the day after the declaration with ten ships to resume the watch off the great French port of Brest, while a day later Nelson hoisted his flag on board of the *Victory* on his way to assume the chief command in the Mediterranean. Pitt foresaw the methods by which Napoleon sought to subdue England—one by attempted invasion, the other by the destruction of her trade and consequent undermining of her financial stability. After the occupation of Hanover and the reoccupation of the lower part of the Italian peninsula, Napoleon turned his attention towards the invasion of Great Britain. The construction of the flotilla which, covered by the fleet, was to be the means of transport across the Channel, operated against the construction of the new vessels for the navy also desired by Napoleon. Not only did it absorb the scanty material on hand for ship-building, but the work of construction and constant repairs drained the dockyards of mechanics. Much doubt has been expressed of late years as to the sincerity of Napoleon's intentions to attempt the crossing of the Channel, but the author holds, with such careful historians as Thiers and Lanfrey, that it is not possible, after examining the voluminous correspondence of Napoleon during the thirty months of preparation, to avoid the conviction that so elaborate a deception as it would involve would be impossible even for the Italian nature of Bonaparte. The boldness of the undertaking and the rapid movement against Austria from Boulogne afterwards caused these doubts and strengthen Metternich's report of Napoleon's own declarations; but Boulogne, although admirably situated to disguise the movement against Austria, was not less so with respect to an invasion of England. Besides, it was, as Jomini testifies, customary for Napoleon to entertain an alternative project in case his combinations failed, as this did, when Villeneuve sailed for Cadiz instead of for Brest. The campaign of Trafalgar, in which Napoleon attempted the union of the naval strength of France and her ally, Spain, at or near Brest, followed, ending with Nelson's victory and death. The author thus vividly pictures the period of waiting preceding this victory:

"Meanwhile, that period of waiting from May, 1803, to August, 1805, when the tangled net of naval and military movements began to unravel, was a striking and wonderful pause in the world's history. On the heights above Boulogne and along the narrow strip of beach from Etaples to Wimereux, were encamped 130,000 of the most brilliant soldiery of all time. . . . Growing daily more vigorous in the bracing sea air and the hardy life laid out for them, they could on fine days, as they practised the varied manœuvres which were to perfect the vast host in embarking and disembarking with order and rapidity, see the white cliffs fringing the only country that to the last defied their arms. Far away, Cornwallis off Brest, Collingwood off Rochefort, Pellew off Ferrol, were battling the wild gales of the Bay of Biscay, in that tremendous and sustained vigilance which reached its utmost tension in the years preceding Trafalgar, concerning which Collingwood wrote that admirals need to be made of iron, but which was forced upon them by the unquestionable and imminent danger of the country. Farther distant still, severed apparently from all connection with the busy scene at Boulogne, Nelson before Toulon was wearing away the last two years of his glorious but suffering life, fighting the fierce northwesters of the Gulf of Lyons, and questioning, questioning continually, with feverish anxiety, whether Napoleon's object was Egypt again or Great Britain really.

"They were dull, weary, eventless months, those months of watching and waiting of the big ships before the French arsenals. Purposeless they surely seemed to many, but they saved England. The world has never seen a more impressive demonstration of the influence of sea-power upon its history. Those far-distant, storm-beaten ships, upon which the Grand Army never looked, stood between it and the dominion of the world. Holding the interior positions they did, before—and therefore between—the chief dockyards and detachments of the French Navy, the latter could unite only by a concurrence of successful evasions, of which the failure of any one nullified the result. Linked together as the various British fleets were by chains of smaller vessels, chance alone could secure Bonaparte's great combination, which depended upon the covert concentration of several detachments upon a point practically within the enemy's lines. Thus, while bodily present before Brest, Rochefort, and Toulon, strategically the British squadrons lay in the Straits of Dover, barring the way against the army of invasion."

With Trafalgar all attempts of the French to wage purely naval war against Great Britain ceased. The contest continued by Napoleon took the form of war against her commerce, carried on with a vigor almost savage, and with little heed, as we well know, to the rights and interests of weaker and neutral nations. The French made use of privateers and scattered cruisers, directed against both English shipping and neutral vessels with English goods. The rôle of the English in these times was one principally of commerce protection, in ways likely to be employed again under similar circumstances. It consisted in the assemblage of convoys, sometimes numbering a thousand vessels, under man-of-war protection, of patrol by vessels having defined cruising grounds along the commercial routes, and by the capture of the foreign colonial possessions of France and her allies in the West Indies and elsewhere that served as bases for predatory warfare.

The net results of Napoleon's policy were trifling. By various and mutually confirmatory modes of investigation, Capt. Mahan finds that the loss inflicted did not exceed two and a half per centum of the total value of British trade. This loss, as he well says, practically reduced itself to nothing more than a war tax, onerous, but, under the circumstances, far from being insupportable. The strain of the Napoleonic decrees upon the Continent, then virtually under the control of the great Emperor, was finally too great to be endured; the privations of all classes, the misery of the poor, made the Continental States ready for rebellion when the opportunity came. It came for Spain in 1808, for Russia in 1810, and the peninsular position of Spain and Portugal gave to England's sea-power another opportunity for direct warfare against the forces of the Empire, while the Czar's action led to the invasion of Russia. Napoleon, whose military career had emphasized the overwhelming effect of concentration, was obliged to divide his forces and separate them by the length of Europe. The retreat from Russia began the end of his empire.

WHITNEY'S LINCOLN.

Life on the Circuit with Lincoln; with sketches of Generals Grant, Sherman, and McClellan, Judge Davis, Leonard Swett, and other contemporaries. By Henry C. Whitney. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

THIS is the bulkiest addition to our Lincoln literature that we have had since the voluminous biographical history of Nicolay and Hay, and in its general make it is coarser-grained than anything its subject has so far inspired, except the biography by W. H. Lamon. Its coarseness, however, is literary in the main, and not moral, like Lamon's, whose brutal frankness took a ghoulish pleasure in unearthing everything sordid in the circumstances of Lincoln's life and everything questionable in the methods of his political career. The hard and cruel facts of his narration nearly all remain in Herndon's Life, but so different is Herndon's temper, and so much warmer his appreciation of Lincoln's better parts, that the final impression left upon our minds is very different. Maj. Whitney's book, while reproducing, in less orderly arrangement and with much less of detail, the materials of Herndon's and Lamon's, is marred by an extravagance of laudation

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further removed from Herndon's honest admiration than that is from the deliberate depreciation of Lamon. He never tires of the rhetorical flights by which he seeks each time some more extravagant expression of his conception of Lincoln's intellectual and moral greatness. His favorite comparisons will hardly be congenial to the orthodox mind, for they are all between Lincoln and the Second Person in the Trinity—*c. g.*, "His mental anguish" during Grant's battles in the Wilderness "was only exceeded in the way of vicarious suffering by the agony of Gethsemane"; and, consonantly with this kind of simile, Nancy Hanks, the mother of Lincoln, was "second only to the Virgin Mary, who gave to humanity the Saviour of mankind." After which we have the astonishing anti-climax, "The Hanks [*sic*] are an humble race, but an estimable lady who was the wife of one of the recent Governors of Kansas descended from that family on the maternal side."

This is one of many incidents that make Maj. Whitney's book the most amusing contribution to our Lincoln literature that we have had to date. There is a chapter called "Lincoln as a Merry Andrew," which, with much stale, flat, and unprofitable matter, has some fresh examples of Lincoln's overflowing drollery and wit. No one before has laid so much stress on this aspect of his character, his persistent predilection for the comic and absurd, in season and out of season, his fondness for Joe Miller and his kind. Maj. Whitney strenuously insists upon the utility of this predilection, which to Stanton was intolerable and to Chase deplorable. He thinks it was Lincoln's salvation from the besetting melancholy of his life. Probably it was to no slight degree the obverse side of that which was more hidden from the common view. In regard to the taste of Lincoln's jokes and stories, there is nothing here to qualify the force of Herndon's testimony, which is also that of Leonard Swett and others, that while no indelicacy hurt a joke or story that had in it the soul of wit, so no indelicacy, as such, ever attracted him. It was the wit or humor that he wanted, and the rest was for him as if it did not exist. But Maj. Whitney's account of Lincoln's humorous side furnishes only a small proportion of the amusing matter of his book. This is everywhere, and most where the writer is himself least conscious of it. It attaches to his literary crudity; to his ambitious rhetoric; to his astonishing punctuation; to his grammar, which is as strikingly original; to the magnificent propylæa, metaphysical, psychological, historical, through which, in chapter after chapter, he advances to the sacred precincts of his particular themes, which are often surprisingly contracted when we finally arrive; and to the aggregations of proper names with which Lincoln's is associated or compared. For the incongruity of these we must go for a parallel to Thackeray's "Jerusalem and Madagascar," and for their prodigality to Lowell's catalogue, in the 'Fable for Critics,' satirizing the habit of Theodore Parker.

His acquaintance with Lincoln began in October, 1854, and ended in October, 1861—why then does not appear. He saw much of Lincoln on the circuit, and he accompanied him on his famous debating tour in 1858, when, locking horns with Douglas, as he expressed it, in many a forensic battle, he established his superior strength, but lost the Senatorial prize. Maj. Whitney tells no more pathetic story than that of his finding Lincoln alone in his office on the evening of Douglas's election, while those who had supported him were debating whether they should not throw him over and take up with Douglas for the Presidency, as Horace Greeley vehemently advised. Of Maj. Whitney's contention that Lincoln's political ambition was purely secondary, like that of *Macbeth* taken on to please his wife, there is abundant evidence to the contrary in his own pages. It was that, together with his ability, which attracted Mary Todd to him, and, strangely in contrast with the judgment of his fellow-citizens generally for twenty years, won him her preference over Douglas, his rival in both politics and love.

The title of Maj. Whitney's book is an extremely modest one compared with the wide range of its topics. A single chapter, "Life on the Eighth Circuit," is all there is to make the title good, and even that includes much foreign matter in its thirty pages. More than half of it is devoted to the judge of the circuit, David Davis, for whom the writer has a dislike so venomous that it would imply some personal animus, were it not that McClellan is subsequently treated worse, and Grant with an alternation of superficial praise and deep contempt more hurtful than unqualified abuse. Of the life on the circuit, the social evening meetings of the lawyers with the judge furnish the greater part, but in a chapter on "Lincoln as a Lawyer" there is some amends for this. Lincoln was the life and soul of these meetings, enjoying his own humor and absurdity with the keenest zest, but equally "pricked with the cider of the judge's wit," or any that was good. If these records can be trusted, his speech was that of a backwoodsman of the time; but, even on the circuit, something of his essential dignity struck through the queer disguise. No one ever called him "Abe." On the other hand, he disliked having "Mr." or any other title added to his own surname, and would gladly have addressed others with the same simplicity. The more important the case on trial, the better he displayed his powers, stripping off verbiage and technicalities and going straight to the heart of the matter. As to his refusing cases that were not intrinsically just, that is a part of the legend that must be given up.

A chapter on "Lincoln as an Orator" is one of the most valuable in the book, for the simple reason that it contains an entire speech of Lincoln's heretofore unpublished, which was delivered at Urbana on October 24, 1854, in the old court-room, which "shone resplendent in the coruscation of eleven tallow candles glued on top of the nether sashes of the windows." It was his last Whig speech, and was little short of those with which he encountered Douglas in 1858. There is here nothing of the loose undress of his habitual walk and conversation, but it is as clear as possible—Dawes and Greeley were not more so—in its unqualified acceptance of the Fugitive Slave Law as a finality, "to be as fully and honestly obeyed as any other." Equally in denying any intention of seeking the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, the speech foreshadows the Republican platforms of 1856 and 1860, which the average assailant of Webster's speech of March 7, 1850, forgets (if he ever knew) were built with the materials of that speech. The same speech foreshadows Lincoln's attitude towards slavery in the civil war: "Much as I hate slavery, I would consent to the extension of it rather than see the Union dissolved." Chapter xiii., "Lincoln and Slavery," is one of the longest in the book, but the most of it is spent in a portentous history of slavery from the beginning of the world, and an argument for the inferiority of the negro and his inability to live as a freeman among white men, to which position Lincoln firmly held. Before and after emancipation he was a colonizationist. Emancipation was a "revolutionary alternative, which he abhorred," forced on him by "the Radical politicians and people of the North." If this rendering, for which Major Whitney has much show of truth, is wholly sound, it must be confessed that as the unwilling instrument of emancipation he shines with a less glorious light than in the popular imagination. But of his sincere hatred of slavery and his intense love for the Union there can be no doubt.

The chapter "Lincoln as a Christian" is one of the most worthless in the book. The writer confesses that Lincoln never spoke with him upon the subject of religion, and several of his hearsays and reported conversations are evidently not authentic. There is nothing here to impeach the position of Herndon that, from being "a Tom Paine infidel" in his earlier manhood, Lincoln came at length to find in the writings of Theodore Parker an expression of religious thought and feeling to which he could heartily respond. But without being orthodox, or approximately so, Lincoln was extremely superstitious. He had some ground for being so in his abnormal moods and the visionary experiences they brought. When he was in Washington as a Congressman, he would not be one of thirteen at table, and Robert Toombs, another of the company, told him he would rather die than be so superstitious.

What is here written of "Lincoln's loyalty to his friends" is creditable to him. The writer saw him very angry only on three occasions, and one of these was when he undertook to urge on the President some civil appointment. He has several personal reminiscences which are a real addition to our stock. The illustrations ought to have a word. They are numerous, and include some interesting photographs and facsimiles of Lincoln's letters and public documents, with others that are simply a device to tickle the eyes of the groundlings. The frontispiece Lincoln is valuable compared with the well-known photograph of 1860 (which is also given), as showing what an immense defacement was his beard. On page 317 the familiar representation of Charlotte Corday, in the Corcoran Gallery at Washington, does service as the picture of "a handsome and modest-appearing octoroon."

The Purgatory of Dante Alighieri. (Purgatorio i—xxvii): An Experiment in Literal Verse Translation. By Charles Lancelot Shadwell, M.A., B.C.L., Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, with an Introduction by Walter Pater, M.A., Fellow of Brasenose College, Oxford. Macmillan & Co.

THERE are some intellectual labors, like the squaring of the circle, which, although demonstrated again and again to be unachievable, have an irresistible and recurring fascination. Such is the translation of Dante into English verse that shall in any way reproduce the poetical qualities of the original. Last year, in reviewing Prof. Norton's prose translation, we took occasion to state why it is, in our opinion, that a prose version of Dante, or Homer, or Virgil is preferable to any metrical version that has been or is likely to be made; and it would not be worth while to return to the subject now did not Mr. Shadwell's "experiment" confirm most fully the opinions we then expressed. Mr. Shadwell, too, has the approval of no less dignified a scholar than Mr. Walter Pater, and with such a sponsor the assumption that any English metre can satis-

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factorily reproduce Dante's metre is likely to lead other students astray.

A great poem like the 'Divine Comedy' is admired for both its form and its substance; its form is untranslatable, because in English we have no metrical equivalent for the *terza rima* of the Italian. It follows, therefore, that any attempt to put the 'Divine Comedy' into English verse must result not only in a loss of the charms of the original form, but also in that botching of the substance which is inevitable whenever prose is turned into poetry. We can get, in prose, an adequate statement of the substance of a poem; but the converse is not true, as any one can judge for himself by merely comparing the best metrical versions of the Psalms with the prose of the King James Bible. In languages as nearly allied as German and English, metrical forms are often interchangeable; in languages like Italian and English or Spanish and English, this is not true. What effect, for example, could be produced by an attempt to render in English the assonance of Calderon's verse?

Mr. Shadwell is conscious that he has set himself an impossible task, but this has not deterred him from persevering in it. Rejecting blank verse as little better than prose, and dismissing the English *terza rima*, he sought for some other English metre which might do justice to Dante's *terza rima;* and he finally chose the metrical form of Marvell's Horatian "Ode to Cromwell"! "This ode," as he says, "is composed in stanzas, each stanza consisting of one pair of iambic eight-syllabled lines and one pair of six-syllabled lines, thus:

"He nothing common did or mean
Upon that memorable scene,
But with his keener eye
The axe's edge did try;
Nor called the gods with vulgar spite
To vindicate his helpless right,
But bowed his comely head
Down as upon a bed."

We need not lavish criticism upon Marvell's ode, strong in thought, robust in form; but it is one thing for Marvell to have chosen this form for the expression of high criticism upon Cromwell, and quite another thing for Mr. Shadwell to choose it as a vehicle for the infinite variety of Dante's theme. Mr. Shadwell's first reason for making his selection is that Dante arranges his poem in stanzas of three lines each, and rarely overruns from *terzina* to *terzina*. This is only partly correct; the sentence is carried on in a third and sometimes in almost a half of the *terzine*, and it is often interrupted in a single *terzina*. Mr. Shadwell's second reason, "that the capacity of the two stanzas is nearly equal," Marvell's having twenty-eight and Dante's thirty-three syllables, has little cogency. If "equal capacity" in length be the desideratum, why not adopt a four-line stanza of eight syllables to the line? That would give thirty-two syllables in English for thirty-three in Italian. Mr. Shadwell states, in the third place, that the latter part of Dante's *terzina* is often filled by "a subordinate clause, a reflexion, a simile, an illustration, a parenthetic statement of any kind," and that the change from eight to six syllables in the second part of Marvell's stanza is particularly adapted for just such subordinate clauses. While we admit a certain pertinence in this argument, we believe that this claim could justly be made by an advocate of the four-line octosyllabic stanza. Mr. Shadwell's last reason is that "there is a resemblance between the language of the two poets. Marvell, like Dante, can produce great effects by the use of very simple and homely words. Compare the lines

"'But bowed his comely head
Down as upon a bed;'

or

"'While round the armèd bands
Did clap their bloody hands;'

with the following:

"'Ma noi sem peregrin come voi siete.'
'A guisa di leon quando si posa.'"

To this argument we reply that the "great effects" were not produced by the particular metrical form, but by the quality of the poet's thought. There is no metre in English in which great poets have not produced "great effects by the use of very simple and homely words." They abound in blank verse; you will find them in the running octosyllabic measure of Coleridge's "Christabel," in the varied iambics of Wordsworth's great Ode, in the fluent metre which Burns so much affected, in the Spenserian stanza as used by Byron, in the adaptation of the Italian *canzone* as used by Arnold in "The Buried Life." Have we not a right to infer, therefore, that the power "to produce great effects by the use of very simple and homely words" does not inhere in Marvell's stanza? A poor versifier could not produce them by using that or any other form; a poet can produce them by using any one of many forms.

So much for an *à-priori* examination of Mr. Shadwell's theory: let us glance for a moment at its application in his version. One of the best known passages of the "Purgatorio" is the opening of the eighth canto, which Mr. Shadwell gives thus:

"The hour was come that on the sea
Softens the heart with memory,
The day on voyage sped
Farewell to friends was said;
Then, if he hear the distant bell
That seems the dying day to knell,
Its sound hath power to move
The new-bound pilgrim's love."

Here is compactness, but of what sort? It is the compactness that may be attained by knocking off the hands and legs of a statuette in order to make it fit a given niche. Here, too, is frequency of rhyme, which Mr. Shadwell regards as a most important consideration; but what scheme of rhymes? Certainly one as nearly approaching a mere jingle as it would be possible to find in any serious work. That pair of short lines at the end of each stanza produces not a "great effect," but the effect of hurrying to be through, and of a dearth of thought sufficient to make the last couplet in the stanza of equal length with the first. All this, we need hardly remark, is not the impression produced by the original. We do not always find in Longfellow's translation melody, and, of course, we have not rhyme, and yet his version of this passage gives much more of the music of the original than Mr. Shadwell, with his jingle, could possibly give. Longfellow, moreover, is very literal, and Shadwell is not. That the reader may judge for himself we quote Longfellow:

"'Twas now the hour that turneth back desire
In those who sail the sea, and melts the heart,
The day they've said to their sweet friends farewell,
And the new pilgrim penetrates with love,
If he doth hear from far away a bell
That seemeth to deplore the dying day."

Whoever will read aloud a canto of the new translation will, we think, have little desire to read another. The monotony of the metre of 'Hiawatha' is tolerable compared with the aggressive rhymes and the sing-song of this. Mr. Shadwell's scholarliness, his skill in condensing, his occasional choice of a first-rate word, might all be commended, and we would gladly do so, but to what purpose? He seems to us to have misapplied his talents, because he set out from a false premise as to the possibilities of metrical translation. We cannot think it worth while to criticise him as an interpreter of Dante, because he can no more interpret Dante adequately by the vehicle he has chosen than a Beethoven symphony could be adequately interpreted by a single player with fife or ocarina.

Of Mr. Pater's introduction we need only say that it presents, in his usual whipped-cream style, a dilettantish "appreciation" of Dante. Its value may be inferred from a single quotation: "The true test of a work of imagination, and therefore of any veritable presentment of it in the way of translation, is that it should enfold one, so to speak, in its own atmosphere, that one should feel able to breathe in it. I have had such a feeling in reading what follows." If Mr. Pater is sincere in implying that he breathes, in Mr. Shadwell's translation, an atmosphere similar to that in Dante's original, we can only wonder at the quality of his lungs, and be silent.

Gothic Architecture. By Édouard Corroyer, Architect to the French Government and Inspector of Diocesan Edifices. Edited by Walter Armstrong, Director of the National Gallery of Ireland. With 236 illustrations. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

THIS is rather an essay than a treatise, and so is better suited for the reading of those who have some acquaintance with its subject than for a text-book, for which it is presumably intended. It is much too narrow in range for adequate discussion of the subject, for it not only insists, which is perfectly right, on the fact that the pointed style is essentially a French contribution to the development of architecture, but substantially ignores it among other people than the French, and gives no account of the important collateral development that it underwent in their hands. It gives, moreover, no complete and systematic picture, or even sketch, of what mediæval architecture was in France, but is confined to one or two lines of analysis, leaving unnoticed much that is essential to the great and complex growth which we call Gothic architecture. It puts first, as do other recent treatises on the subject, the constructive origin and purpose of the style, the development of the ribbed vault and buttress, and the constructive system that grew out of them, and it gives scant attention to any other phenomena. This, to be sure, is the central stem out of which the rest of the style was developed; but it was not the whole, any more than the spine and the brain are the whole of a vertebrate animal. Analysis of plan, of tracery, of roofs, of forms of vaulting, of mouldings, of decorative features and detail, which are too essential to be overlooked in even an elementary view of this architecture as an art, are all left out.

This defect is aggravated by a curiously arbitrary division of religious architecture and monastic architecture, whose separate discussion prevents M. Corroyer from tracing consecutively the development of the Gothic of the thirteenth century out of the Romanesque of the twelfth, and from fully illustrating the too much forgotten fact, which he is careful to recognize, that the monastic system was the school in which the architecture of the Middle Ages was nurtured. It is singular that, having before written a book on Romanesque architecture, and following it now with one on Gothic, he really says nothing in either about the transition between the two styles. In fact, the book blinks style altogether, being written from the constructor's point of view, and not the artist's, and, while it is intelligent, animated, and interesting, it suffers from the lack both of breadth and of logical cohesion.

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But it has a more serious defect in that it is given over to the support of a theory of M. Corroyer, viz., that Gothic architecture, being simply the development of an effort to apply a system of vaulting on groin-ribs to varying areas, is derived not from the Roman and Romanesque groined vault, but from the dome and pendentive. The Church of St. Front at Périgueux, he declares, is the mother of it all, and it was first developed in the churches of Aquitaine and Anjou and imitated in the Isle of France. This paradox is maintained not by documents and dates, but by simply denying out of hand the received chronology, and arranging the buildings in the order which is required by his thesis. Dates and documents show, if the researches of historians and archæologists are worth anything, that the Angevine churches are some half century later than those which M. Corroyer derives from them; but with this he does not concern himself.

Miss Simmonds's nonchalant translation may fitly be called flighty. It is her pleasure to recast M. Corroyer's thought into a paraphrase, in which, if he reads it, he must often search with anxiety for his ideas. It is droll, though not here misleading, to see *produit d'une génération spontanée* rendered by "product of a single generation." *Faut connaître cette vérité* becomes "cannot be insisted on too strongly." *C'est ainsi que la coupole, d'origine orientale, traduite en pierre par nos ancêtres aquitains, vers la fin du XI. siècle*, is condensed into "thus our Aquitanian forbears, by their successful translation into stone of the eastern cupola." This happy-go-lucky way of translating makes one wonder how the technical parts will fare; and on examination we find *voûte d'arrête*, which should mean simply groined vault, persistently translated "ribbed vault." This makes M. Corroyer talk about the Roman ribbed vault, a thing which is not known, nor believed to have existed. The charge, or load, transmitted by an arch is persistently called its "thrust," which is a very different thing; *appareillé*, which means bonded, is uniformly translated "dressed"; an *arc-doubleau* is a "subordinate" arch, instead of a cross-rib or transverse arch; *voûtes sur croisée d'ogives* (that is, groined vaults with diagonal ribs) are simply "intersecting vaults"—all this in the first twenty pages. We forbear to look farther, but find ourselves wondering in what consists the supervision of Mr. Armstrong, who has heretofore been known, we believe, as a writer on painting rather than on architecture. So far as we see, it appears only in a very brief preface, which finds nothing to criticise in M. Corroyer except a certain "Chauvinistic tone," and in a note or two repeating the complaint.

We have hardly room left to say that the book contains chapters on Gothic sculpture and painting, as adjunct to architecture; that the illustrations are abundant, excellent, and fresh; and that the make-up of the English edition is better than that of the French.

The Ruined Cities of Mashonaland: Being a Record of Excavation and Exploration in 1891. By J. Theodore Bent. With a chapter on the orientation and mensuration of the temples by R. M. W. Swan. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892. Map and illustrations. Pp. xi, 376. 8vo.

THE existence of extensive ruins in southeastern Africa was known to the first Portuguese settlers on the coast. It does not appear, however, that they were actually seen by a European until 1871. Since that time they have been not infrequently visited by sportsmen and pioneers, but the first scientific examination of them by persons qualified for the task was that described in this volume. The head of the mission, for which grants were made by the British Association, the Royal Geographical Society, and the British Chartered Company of South Africa, was Mr. J. Theodore Bent, well known for his archæological researches in Persia and Asia Minor. He was accompanied by his wife and by Mr. R. M. W. Swan, who contributes a chapter of scientific details, as well as notes upon the geography and meteorology of Mashonaland.

The remains of ancient buildings are to be found scattered over the whole of the high plain and hill-region lying between the Zambesi and Limpopo Rivers. The most extensive and best preserved are at Zimbabwe, near the southeastern edge of the plateau, and it was here that the chief explorations were made. They consist of a fortified hilltop, or acropolis, and a circular building about 280 feet in diameter on the plain below. The masonry is of small granite stones, laid without mortar, but "with such evenness of courses and symmetry that, as a specimen of the dry builder's art, it is without a parallel." As there are pavements and steps of a concrete, made out of powdered granite, it is evident that this method of building was used, not from necessity, but from choice. The circular ruin is a temple, and contains an altar and two round towers, one thirty-two feet high, which, both from their shape and from finds in other parts of the ruins of a phallic nature, were undoubtedly of the same religious character as those constructed by the Phœnicians. Closer investigation showed conclusively that this temple and one in the hill-fortress were not for nature-worship alone, but they provided also a simple means for observing the passage of the seasons, of fixing the limits of a tropical year, and thus furnishing the elements of a calendar. This is shown by the careful ornamentation of the outside wall exactly where the rays of the rising sun—in one instance the setting sun—would fall at the summer solstice, by the shadows of towers and monoliths, and by the arrangement of passage-ways, holes in the wall, and upright stones to permit of the noting the transit of certain stars. The unit of measurement, it may be added, was apparently a cubit of 20.62 inches, almost exactly the length of the royal Egyptian cubit. Among the finds were soapstone birds, the tallest five feet four inches high, mounted on pedestals, probably representing the female element in creation; phalli; and fragments of bowls decorated mostly with representations of animals and with geometric patterns. On one of these fragments is what appears to be an inscription, of which the straight characters compare "curiously with the proto-Arabian type of lettering used in the earlier Sabæan inscriptions." This, unfortunately, was the only trace of writing found, notwithstanding the most careful search. Nor was a tomb discovered, nor any indication of the manner in which this ancient people disposed of its dead.

Considering this want of written testimony, Mr. Bent has done wisely, we think, in leaving the question of the origin of these builders a matter of conjecture. From the number and strength of their fortresses, it is probable that they were strangers surrounded by a hostile native population. The fact that their altars were so placed as to permit the observation of certain northern stars only would seem to indicate that they were from the north. Their object was undoubtedly gold-mining, for the ruins are always near ancient mines. In the acropolis of Zimbabwe were found the remains of a smelting furnace, crucibles, burnishers, and an ingot mould of soapstone. "The cumulative evidence," Mr. Bent concludes, "is greatly in favor of the gold-diggers being of Arabian origin, before the Sabæo-Himyaritic period, in all probability, who did work for and were brought closely into contact with both Egypt and Phœnicia." He declines to express any opinion as to whether or not this region was the land of Ophir or the Punt of the Egyptian chroniclers. He refers to the fact, however, that "in the reign of Queen Hatasou, of the eighteenth dynasty, in the seventeenth century B. C., the land of Punt was conquered by an Egyptian expedition, and on the monuments of Deir el-Bahari the conquered people of Punt are depicted as sending tribute, which included ebony, ostrich feathers, leopard skins, giraffes, lions, living leopards, cynocephalous apes, elephants' tusks, and ingots of gold, all products of southeastern Africa."

Though the description of the ruins and the references to what would seem to throw any light upon their origin are Mr. Bent's main object, he does not confine himself to these topics. At least half of his volume is devoted to an account of his journey which will compare favorably with the best books of African travel. Few, indeed, have given more graphic pictures of the natives, their customs, dwellings, ornaments, and household utensils. His journey into the interior was by rail from Cape Town to Mafeking, and thence to Zimbabwe by wagon, a three-months' "trek." This led him through the territory of Khama, the famous Bechuana chief, of whom he declares himself "one of his most fervent admirers," from the vigor and absolute justice of his rule. "Not only has Khama himself established his reputation for honesty, but he is supposed to have inoculated all his people with the same virtue." Perhaps it was this early experience which led Mr. Bent to take a more hopeful view than most travellers of all the natives whom he met.

Of Mashonaland and its material prospects he writes very guardedly. At the time of his visit, a year after the settlement of Fort Salisbury, there was much discontent and suffering among the pioneers from the lack of provisions and medicines through the breaking down of the transport service. There were abundant indications of the presence of gold, but whether it was in paying quantities was still doubtful. The numerous ancient workings, the long rows of crushing-stones, and the vast extent of the débris from the mines were evidence that a great amount of gold had been obtained in those early days. The question is, however, whether the prehistoric miners were driven away by the ancestors of the Zulus and Kaffirs, or whether they voluntarily abandoned the country because of the practical exhaustion of the gold. On the other hand, there is no doubt of the great value of Mashonaland from an agricultural point of view. Much of the soil is extraordinarily fertile and well watered, while its elevation insures a healthy and bracing climate.

On his return journey to the coast Mr. Bent was intrusted with a mission to make treaties with certain chiefs on the unexplored eastern border of the country. His account of these natives, as yet uninjured by intercourse with Europeans, forms one of the most interesting chapters in his book. So also is the description of the rapid march through a region swarming with lions and other large game to the Portuguese port of Beira, now being connected with Mashonaland by railway. There is an

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excellent map and a large number of very interesting illustrations, together with a good index.

Elementary Text-Book of Entomology. By W. F. Kirby, F.L.S., F.E.S. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. 250, plates 87.

AIDED by illustrations of more than six hundred of the species, Mr. Kirby is able to compress into about two hundred and fifty pages a very good elementary text-book of entomology. His aim is to give accurate general instruction on the higher divisions of insects, orders, and families, with their principal or typical genera, in regard to which authorities are most in accord. The work is well adapted to its purpose. Its tendency is rather conservative. This, though less likely to bring it closely up to date in connection with discovery, goes farther towards insuring its reliability. References to the plates are lacking among the descriptions, yet special illustrations are readily found by means of the lists. The references from the figures to the text, on the other hand, are very convenient. Should attention be attracted to a particular drawing, the arrangement is such that its classification and name are before the eye with a direct reference to descriptive and other data. These features commend the book to persons who do not study the subject systematically, but who are interested for the moment in learning something about a certain form. The great number of the pictures alone, aside from the good character of the text, would make the work a treasure for the beginner. Our author estimates the known insects of the world to be near 270,000, Sharp and Walsingham count them nearer 2,000,000, and the United States Entomologist thinks 10,000,000 nearest the truth.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bigelow, M. M. Jarman on Wills. 6th ed. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Boles, H. M. Prisoners and Paupers. Putnams. $1.50.
Bolles, A. S. Bank Collections. Homans Publishing Co.
Booth-Tucker, F. de L. The Life of Catherine Booth, the Mother of the Salvation Army. 2 vols. F. H. Revell Co. $3.50.
Chambers's Encyclopædia. New ed. Vol. X. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Chesterfield's Letters, abridged. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Crawford, F. M. The Children of the King: A Tale of Southern Italy. Macmillan. $1.
Field, Rev. H. M. The Story of the Atlantic Telegraph. New ed. Scribners. $1.50.
Fletcher, W. I. An Index to General Literature. [The "A. L. A." Index.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Frye, J. A. From Headquarters: Odd Tales Picked up in the Volunteer Service. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Gilmore, Rev. G. W. Korea from its Capital, With a Chapter on Missions. Philadelphia: Presbyterian Board of Publication. $1.25.
Grinnell, G. B. Blackfoot Lodge Tales: The Story of a Prairie People. Scribners. $1.75.
Harben, W. N. A Mute Confessor: The Romance of a Southern Town. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Hart, Mary E. Stray Violets. G. M. Allen Co.
Harte, Bret. Susy: A Story of the Plains. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Havard, Henry. *Les Boulle.* [*Les Artistes Célèbres.*] Paris: *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
Hazell's Annual for 1893. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Hueffer, F. H. The Shifting of the Fire. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.
Jarvis, Stinson. Dr. Perdue. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Jessop, Rev. Augustus. Studies by a Recluse in Cloister, Town and Country. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
Kerdren, Jean de. Philippe Saint Hilaire. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.
Knight, H. B. F. A Girl with a Temper. Harpers. 50 cents.
Lang, Mrs. Celestia R. Son of Man; or, The Sequel to Evolution. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Layrle, Vice-Amiral. La Restauration Impériale au Japon. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Leaflets for Lent. London: Sonnenschein & Co.
Legouvé and Labiche's La Cigale chez le Fourmi. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 20 cents.
Lehman, R. C. Mr. Punch's Prize Novels. U. S. Book Co.
Loti, Pierre. A Phantom from the East. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.
Michelet, Jules. On the Highways of Europe. Cassell. $1.50.
Morich, R. J. Loti's Pêcheur d'Islande. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. *30 cents.*
Mozier, W. F. Carlyle's Diamond Necklace. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Murdoch, James. Ayame-San: A Japanese Romance. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh.
Murray, D. C. Time's Revenges. Harpers. $1.25.
Musick, J. R. The Pilgrims: A Story of Massachusetts. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Paine, J. K., and Klauser, T. T. K. Famous Composers and their Works. Parts 5 to 8. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.
Parker, Gilbert. The Chief Factor: A Tale of the Hudson's Bay Co. Home Publishing Co.
Reynolds, Prof. Osborne. Memoir of James Prescott Joule. Manchester, Eng.: Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society.
Robertshaw, James. Volney Randolph: A Novel. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Roby, H. J., and Wilkins, A. S. An Elementary Latin Grammar. Macmillan. 60 cents.
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Thayer, W. R. The Dawn of Italian Independence: Italy from the Congress of Vienna, 1814, to the Fall of Venice, 1849. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
The American Digest for 1892. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $8.
Thierry, G. A. The Mysteries of the Court of Napoleon III. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Van Oss, S. F. *American Railroads as Investments.* London: Effingham Wilson & Co.; New York: Putnams. $4.
Ward, H. D. A Republic without a President, and Other Stories. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.
Webster, D. The Bunker Hill Monument; Adams and Jefferson: Two Orations. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
White, H. J. Nouum Testamentum Domini Nostri Iesu Christi Latine secundum Editionem Sancti Hieronymi. Partis prioris fasiculus tertius. Euangelium secundum Lucam. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Wicks, Frederick. The Veiled Hand. Harpers. 50 cents.

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